

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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## THE DISTRIBUTION OF HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES AFTER LEAVING SCHOOL

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### INTRODUCTION

Of late there has been much discussion concerning the relative rank of students who enter college from high schools. This suggests the question of the rank of students who pass from high school to normal schools. The present paper raises the question with regard to the students who enter the normal schools of New York from the high schools of the state. There is often such poor scholarly material among students who come to the normal schools that it is almost impossible to understand how some of them were able to pass high-school examinations, much less the "regents' examinations" set by the state department. Weak students, to be sure, are found in colleges just as they are found in normal schools. The relative number of weak students in the two institutions has never been determined. The interest in weak students should be extended so as to include good students as well, and a general canvass should be made of the relative grade of all students entering colleges and normal schools as well as of those entering other callings.

This study deals with several specific problems:

1. What is the percentage of high-school graduates who enter, respectively, colleges, normal schools, immediate teaching, professional schools, business, and trades?

2. In view of the number who enter college, is there ground for the popular belief that high schools are primarily college-preparatory schools?

3. What is the comparative rank of the students who enter colleges and those who enter the normal schools and the other callings?

#### SOURCE OF MATERIAL

The investigation was confined to students who were graduated from some of the high schools of New York state in June, 1908. In the consideration of grades general averages were not used, but averages in a limited number of subjects known to the schools as the "minimum requirements": i.e., English, 4 years; foreign language, 2 years; history, 3 years; mathematics, 2 years; science, 2 years. These are the subjects required in every good high school. They are also among the requirements for admission to college, and are required from students in New York state who enter normal schools. By using these subjects we eliminate all elective subjects. All the graduates are, therefore, considered upon the same basis.

It should be stated that the students whose grades are used are taken at random throughout the state. Some are from high schools that graduated one in 1908 and others are from high schools that graduated as many as sixty-eight. The class of 1908 was selected because when this investigation was begun the class of 1910 was the most recent class that had been graduated from the normal schools.

#### METHOD OF OBTAINING THE MATERIAL

In September, 1910, I wrote to the principals of the ten state normal schools asking for information about the normal-school class of 1910. I thus obtained the names of the students in normal schools and also the names of the high schools from which these students were graduated in 1908. After tabulating the information obtained from the normal schools, I sent the following letter to the principals of high schools, inclosing the blank for records:

MY DEAR SIR:

The name of your high school appears in a list from the principals of normal schools as one that has sent successful students to normal schools. I am making a comparative study of students in high schools as to whether they

NAME	ENGLISH				LATIN				GERMAN				FRENCH				MATH.	HISTORY	SCIENCE					SCHOOL, BUSINESS, OR TRADE			
	I	II	III	IV	I	II	III	IV	I	II	III	IV	I	II	III	IV			Alg.	Pl. G.	Am.	Eng.	Anc.		Phyl.	Bot.	Zoo.
NOTE.—Give Regents' grades when possible.																											

enter colleges, normal schools, or take up some business or trade. The only way to make this study is by the grades of the students of some recent class, in the "minimum requirements." I have selected the class of 1908. Will you co-operate with me in this by filling out the inclosed blank with the names of the class of 1908 and their grades in the respective studies they may have pursued? If for any reason you cannot do this, will you return the blank to me?

Hoping I am not imposing upon you, I am

Very truly yours,

March 1, 1911

The result of this circular letter gave me the grades of 735 high-school graduates from seventy-five high schools. The passing grade of the students in the New York state high schools ranges between 100 and 60 per cent.

#### METHOD OF COMPARING STUDENTS

All of the students about whom information was collected were brought together into a single table (Table I). Those who received an average of 84 or better were thus found to be in the highest third of the group; all from 78 downward were found to be in the lowest third. Those receiving 83 and 79 were divided so as to make the groups equal. The facts reported in this table are represented graphically in Chart A.

Any given student who is placed in Table I in the highest third, middle third, or lowest third is retained in the same subdivision for purposes of comparison throughout the whole study. Thus of the 24 included in Table I as receiving the grade 88, eleven went to college and will appear above 88 in the college table and chart; three went to a normal school; none went to professional schools; five went directly into teaching; one went into business; none went into the trades; four remained at home. By following in this way all of the groups who received high, mediocre, and low marks, it is possible to judge something of the character of each group of students.

Tables II to VIII report the details as follows:

Table II represents the students who entered college.

Table III represents the students who entered normal schools.

Table IV represents the students who entered professional schools.

Table V represents the students who began teaching immediately.

Table VI represents the students who entered business.

Table VII represents the students who began a trade.

Table VIII represents the students who remained at home.

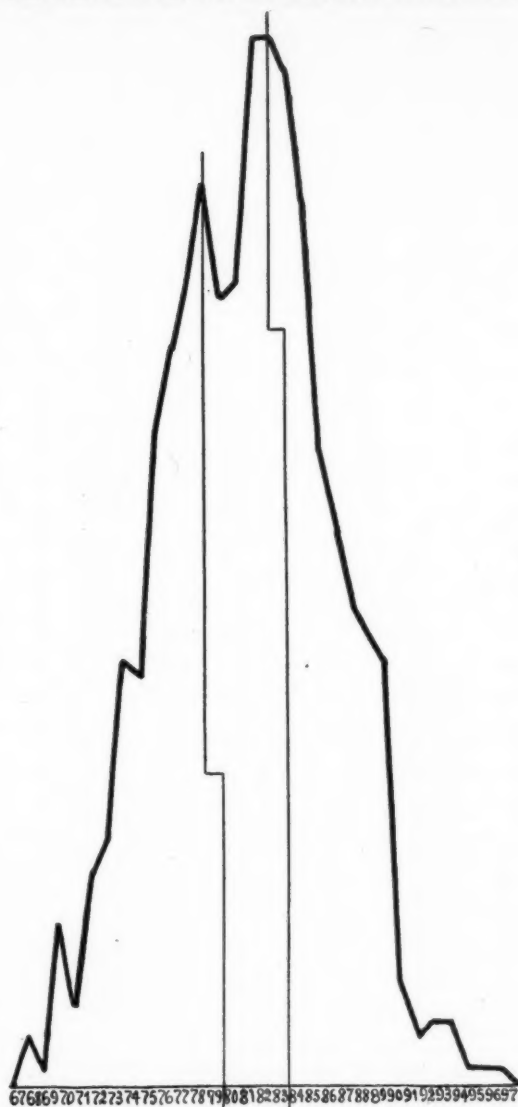


CHART A

CHART A shows the curve which represents the distribution of 735 high-school students who were graduated from 75 high schools in June 1908.

TABLE I

1	3	1	10	5	13	15	26	25	40	45	49	19	48	49	64	46	16	36
67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85
86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97							

Seven hundred and thirty-five students who were graduated from 75 high schools. Below the horizontal line are the different high-school grades from 67 to 97. Above are the numbers of students whose averages in the minimum requirements correspond to the grade represented directly under. Thus there were 40 who averaged 76, 24 who averaged 88, etc. The groups at 79 and 83 per cent respectively are subdivided. All at the right of the line between 83 and 84 fall into the third who received the highest marks; all at the left of the line between 79 and 80 fall into the third who received the lowest marks; all between these lines fall into the middle third of the 735 graduates.

TABLE II

1	0	3	2	2	4	5	7	2	5	14					11																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																			</
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Distribution of 247 high-school students who went to college. These constitute 34 per cent of the total.

TABLE III

2	1	3	1	5	4	16	4	0	3	9	6	13	3	13	5	5	7	3	2
70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89

Distribution of 122 high-school students, or 17 per cent of the total, who entered normal schools.

TABLE IV

1	0	0	2	4	2	1	4	3	2	2	4	2	2	5	0	1	0	0	0	0	1			
60	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93

Distribution of 40 high-school students, or 5 per cent of the total, who entered professional schools.

TABLE V

												4		2		2	
I	0	I	0	I	3	4	6	7	10	9	2	5	3	10	6	6	11
68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85
86	87	88	89	90													

Distribution of 117 high-school students, or 16 per cent of the total, who entered directly the teaching profession.

TABLE VI

												6		1	
I	0	I	I	I	0	5	5	4	5	8	4	3	8	7	5
67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82
83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96		

Distribution of 86 high-school students, or 12 per cent of the total, who entered business.

TABLE VII

												3		2	
I	0	3	I	I	2	2	4	3	7	3	4	7	5	3	4
68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83
84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96			

Distribution of 61 high-school students, or 8 per cent of the total, who entered the trades.

TABLE VIII

												1	
I	0	2	0	2	I	I	I	3	2	7	3	6	2
72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85
86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93						

Distribution of 41 high-school students, or 6 per cent of the total, who remained at home.

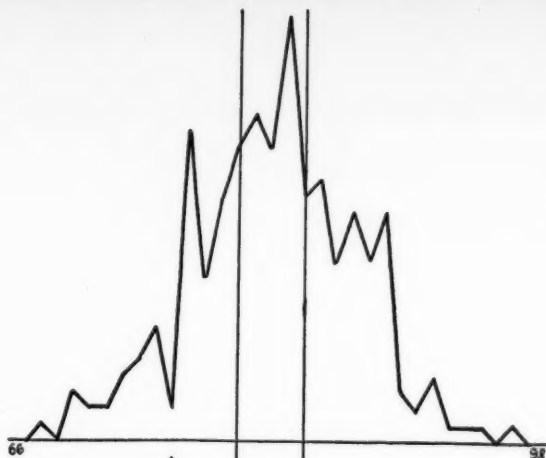


CHART B

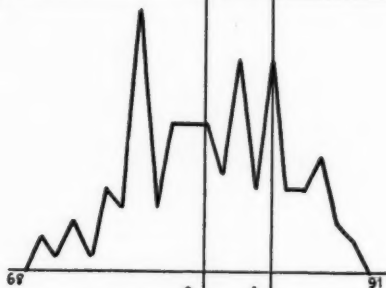


CHART C

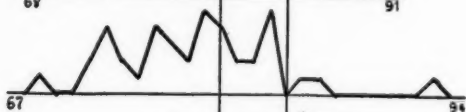


CHART D

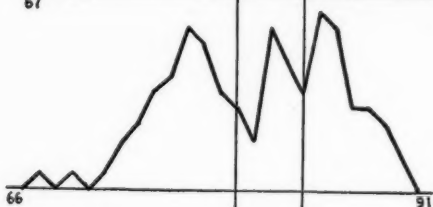


CHART E

6766970712273747576777879808182838485868788899091929394959697

CHART B shows the curve which represents the distribution of 245 or 34 per cent of the 735 students of Chart A who entered college.

CHART C shows the curve which represents the distribution of 122 or 17 per cent of the 735 students of Chart A who entered normal schools.

CHART D shows the curve which represents the distribution of 40 or 5 per cent of the 735 students of Chart A who entered professional schools.

CHART E shows the curve which represents the distribution of 117 or 16 per cent of the 735 students of Chart A who began teaching at once.

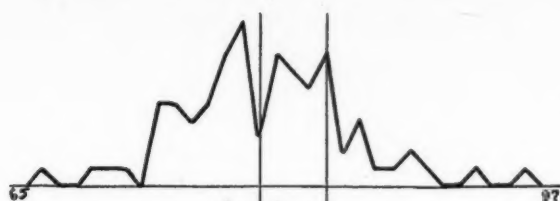


CHART F

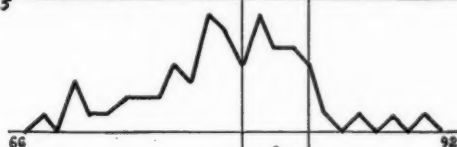


CHART G

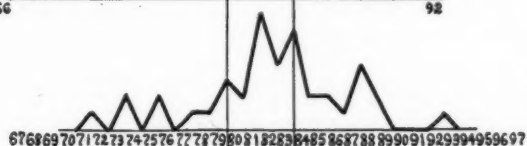


CHART H

CHART F shows the curve which represents the distribution of 86 or 12 per cent of the 735 students of Chart A who engaged in business.

CHART G shows the curve which represents the distribution of 61 or 8 per cent of the 735 students of Chart A who began a trade.

CHART H shows the curve which represents the distribution of 41 or 6 per cent of the 735 students of Chart A who remained at home.

Chart J is added in order to show the relative numbers in each group. The height of the various blocks and the numbers given below each block indicate the later occupations of the 735 students under consideration.

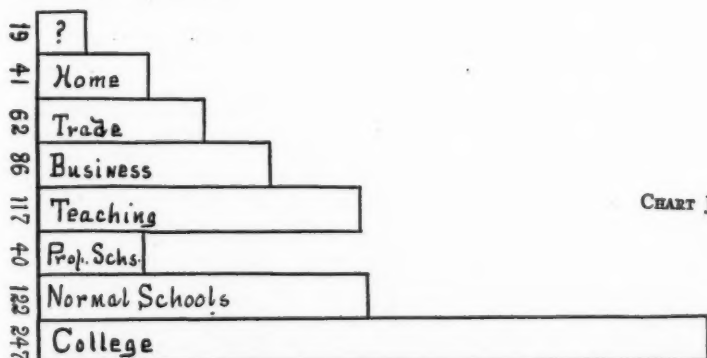


CHART J

TABLE IX

	COLLEGE			NORMAL SCHOOL			PROFESSIONAL SCHOOL			TEACHING			BUSINESS			TRADE			HOME		
	Expected	Actual	Percentage	Expected	Actual	Percentage	Expected	Actual	Percentage	Expected	Actual	Percentage	Expected	Actual	Percentage	Expected	Actual	Percentage	Expected	Actual	Percentage
Highest tertile.....	82	102	41	41	37	30	13	3	8	39	45	39	28	22	27	20	10	16	14	19	46
Middle tertile.....	82	83	33	41	37	30	13	16	40	39	29	25	28	28	33	20	22	34	14	15	37
Lowest tertile.....	82	62	26	41	47	40	13	21	52	39	43	36	28	36	40	20	29	50	14	7	17
Highest quartile.....	62	83	33	30	26	21	10	3	8	29	37	31	21	14	16	15	9	15	10	8	19
Second quartile.....	62	64	25	30	35	29	10	7	18	29	24	20	21	21	25	15	10	16	10	21	51
Third quartile.....	62	63	25	30	24	20	10	13	32	20	25	21	21	20	34	15	23	38	10	7	18
Lowest quartile.....	62	37	17	30	36	30	10	17	42	29	31	28	21	22	25	15	19	31	10	5	12

Table IX brings together all the facts for the purpose of facilitating comparison of the various groups. This table is prepared as follows. The total number of students who went to college, namely 247, is divided in the upper part of the table into three subdivisions, in the lower part of the table into four subdivisions. The numbers set down under "Expected" show how many would appear in each subdivision if the college group were uniformly distributed throughout the various grades. Thus if the students who go to college were of exactly the same type as the whole group we should expect 82 in the highest third, and 62 in the highest fourth, etc. Under "Actual" is set down the number of students in each subdivision. Thus there were 102 students out of the highest third of the total 735 under consideration who went to college. This is twenty-two more than might have been expected if the college group had been of the average type. The 102 students in the first third constitute 41 per cent of all those who went to college.

The tables and charts show first that the group of students who go to college is larger than any other group and that the students belonging to this group are distinctly above the average.

The normal-school group is made up more liberally from the lower grades.

The professional-school group is small. The reason for the small size of this group is the fact that the professional schools are more and more requiring for admission college courses or special preparation after high school.

The other groups exhibit characteristics which are evident from the tables and call for no special comment.

#### CONCLUSIONS

Many conclusions are suggested by the facts reported above. The different vocations evidently attract different types of students. The college is conspicuous in its close relation to the high-school course. The preparation for the other vocations is less direct, and the facts suggest questions regarding the meaning of a high-school course. With reference to the normal-school group it should be pointed out that similar studies from different parts of the country are very much needed in order to show whether conditions in New York state are typical.

## THE TRAINING OF HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS<sup>\*</sup>

CALVIN N. KENDALL  
Commissioner of Education, New Jersey

The extraordinary growth of high schools creates a constantly increasing demand for teachers. The supply of available college graduates, professionally trained and untrained, apparently keeps up with this demand. In some of the men's colleges, however, the number of those who look forward to teaching school is far less than twenty years ago. In times of business prosperity, young men leaving college are naturally attracted by commercial pursuits. Last year 277 new high-school teachers, including those of industrial or technical subjects, were employed in New Jersey alone. From the colleges of the state were graduated last June not more than five young men who became teachers in public schools anywhere.

It is to be borne in mind that many high schools are in small cities and towns, where salaries are low. Large cities, where salaries are more respectable, can, of course, require more training from candidates for high-school positions.

In this paper it is assumed that there are four possible means of training high-school teachers. These are: first, academic training; second, study of education; third, observation of teaching; fourth, practice teaching.

It is desirable that a high-school teacher should have the scholarship represented by a degree from a college or university. The state of California demands of teachers without experience one year of postgraduate study. It is the only American commonwealth, so far as I know, whose standards in scholarship for secondary teachers approach the standards of German schools. We all know, however, effective and valuable teachers in high schools who are not possessors of degrees, or whose scholarship is of the self-made variety, among whom are some who have been promoted to

<sup>\*</sup>Address before the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, November 26, 1912.

the high school from the ranks of elementary teachers. Many of the normal schools throughout the country are doing creditable work in the training of teachers for secondary schools. Most of these teachers, however, find their way into the smaller high schools. That broad and accurate scholarship, however obtained, is a great factor in successful teaching is a commonplace universally recognized. Before postgraduate standards for secondary teachers can be made to obtain generally, it will be necessary to offer considerably larger financial inducements to such teachers than usually prevail. This cannot be said with too much emphasis. It is a condition that lurks in the background of any discussion concerning how much training it is practicable to demand.

Specialization in subject-matter is often too narrow on the part of college graduates who wish to teach. The opinion is expressed that overemphasis upon specialization is not well for the student as an individual. It usually does not add value to the graduate as a teacher in the high school, large or small. In the exigencies of high-school program-making it is often necessary to assign more than one subject to a teacher.

The secondary teachers of Germany and France must show mastery for teaching purposes in at least three subjects; one of these must always be in the vernacular.

I know of a superintendent of schools who went to an important university in quest of a high-school teacher of botany. He was asked at the well-organized bureau for the placing of teachers what particular brand of botany the teacher would be called upon to teach. It was an embarrassing question. The inference was natural that upon the answer to the question would depend the presentation of candidates.

Is it too much to say that prospective teachers should be guided by college faculties to choose as subjects of study groups of related or allied subjects? Obviously this "steering" cannot be done unless the college is in close touch with the actual demands of the high schools.

Courses in education afford another means of training. These courses are now generally offered in colleges and universities. Perhaps further progress in this kind of training must be looked

for chiefly in increasing the supply of well-trained and able men to conduct the courses.

The worth of such courses may be said to consist in the creation of a professional outlook or attitude toward the work of the high school. Neither the public nor the great mass of teachers is inclined to regard teaching as a profession. The withdrawal of a teacher to enter another occupation, so common in this country, is very rare in the German schools. "It is the professional spirit which every German teacher feels, that differentiates him from his species in the other countries, and this spirit is the result chiefly of training in education itself."

The discouraging indifference concerning educational questions which characterizes some high-school teachers is less likely to be found among those who have had courses in some of the problems of the secondary school, in psychology applied to teaching and in social education. Young teachers with a theoretical knowledge of one or more of these problems approach, as a rule, the work of the high school in a different state of mind from those in whose consciousness there is no glimmer of the existence of such problems.

The value of courses in education is also likely to be determined as the value of other courses is determined, by the character of the teaching in the department of education. Interest and enthusiasm must be created. The value of such courses is likewise determined by the attitude of other departments toward the education department. The department of education must not be merely tolerated; it must be supported as cordially as other departments. It is said to be a fact that in the past the school of education has not always been looked upon with respect by other departments. In proportion as this attitude is reflected in the minds of prospective teachers, the work in education is handicapped.

The professor who scoffs at the study of education is likely to be the man who complains the loudest about the inadequate preparation of students for college. He overlooks the fact that some of this inadequate preparation is the result of untrained college graduates in the high schools, for one of whom he may have written a glowing letter of recommendation as to his classroom ability. It would be interesting to see this type of the educational stand-

patter, the despiser of methods, attempt to teach a class of grammar-grade boys and girls. Most high-school pupils are still boys and girls.

The third means of training high-school teachers is observation of teaching in schools in the neighborhood of the college or university, or on the university premises. Such observation may be of much value. This, however, is determined by the kind of teacher whose work is observed. College teachers of education are by no means oblivious to this fact. As the head of the educational department in an important university has put it: "I am convinced that it is easily possible to observe work in schools and still make very little gain. Unless the teacher has had ample opportunity to see superior teaching done in the high school, I am inclined to believe that the work will quickly drop back to the standard of excellence attained in the high school which the teacher attended."

Discrimination here is greatly needed. "If the teacher is to be observed as a model, he must not illustrate to the student how not to do it." Fine teachers cannot be found easily. They must be hunted out or discovered. To bring prospective high-school teachers into contact with able teachers in action is an end abundantly worth while. High standards of work must be established at the outset. The standards of too many teachers are low, because they have not been brought into sufficient contact with the fine art of teaching.

The prospective history teacher who observes the work of a teacher of history who talks too much, who lectures too much, who fails to discriminate in the choice of material, who is indefinite in his requirements, who cannot arouse interest or enthusiasm, who for these and other reasons fails to get hard work from pupils, is establishing for himself low standards.

The opinion is expressed that time is wasted by misdirected or underdirected visiting of schools. Interpretation of the work of the teacher observed is necessary to the prospective teacher. Passive observation without interpretation is of little value. Mere destructive criticism of the teacher's work, of a school, or a system of schools, for that matter, is cheap because there are so many ready to supply it.

The University of Wisconsin has recently, under the authorization of the state legislature, established what is known as the Wisconsin High School of the University. The university, because of its independent control of the school, is able to place carefully selected and presumably highly efficient teachers in each teaching position. The project is a commendable one, and its development is sure to be of interest to all engaged in the work of training secondary teachers.

The number of well-thought-out and well-regulated plans of observation teaching in connection with education departments appears to be increasing.

Thus far I have mentioned three of four possible ways of training high-school teachers. To these should be added a fourth kind of training, if the teacher is to be trained according to professional standards.

I refer to practice teaching. The college or university which supplements its pedagogical course and courses in observation by practice teaching is rendering a distinct and much-needed educational service, provided this teaching is under competent guidance or direction. This practice teaching is the laboratory where theory is tested. The practice school has not been developed as rapidly as its value warrants. Nothing is more firmly established than the practice school in the preparation of elementary teachers. Why not, then, for high-school teachers? Practice teaching gives confidence to the student which comes from successful doing. It gives him the point of view of the real teacher. What is this point of view? I believe it is this: Consideration of the pupil as the end of education, the subject of study as the means to be employed in his training.

Some high-school teachers, fresh from college, reverse this order. In their minds the subject is uppermost, the pupil undermost. Some high-school teachers are unable to adjust their teaching to the immature minds of pupils. By reason of this maladjustment, they consequently fail to arouse the interest of pupils, who leave school, not because they have to, but because they want to.

If the teacher goes into the high school without experience, he may become proficient, but it is more or less at the expense of the

pupil. High-school teachers who have been merely students of educational theory have had no opportunity to test the value of their theory. They should have this opportunity, using educational theory as a background. A co-ordination of theory and practice, with accompanying observation, furnishes an ideal training.

The work in practice should be real teaching. Children should not merely be practiced upon. The work is stimulating and interesting to the student-teacher in proportion as it is real. The young teacher as a rule responds quickly to the sympathetic, intelligent criticism which the practice school affords. He forms a habit in the practice school of making the work of each recitation as effective as possible. He gradually becomes a critic of his own work. This attitude he is likely to carry with him into his permanent work. It is at once the attitude of a profession and of ambition. In the small schools there is little or no supervision of secondary teaching. In the larger schools this supervision is often inadequate. Too often the teacher must "go it alone." A blunder under these circumstances is repeated indefinitely at the expense of pupils. A blunder in the practice school can be pointed out before night.

In spite of the excellent work that is done by large numbers of high-school teachers throughout the country, there is, speaking dogmatically, too much misdirected effort on the part of some teachers who are graduates of colleges. The trouble is that they have had no opportunity to learn to teach. It is natural that, fresh from college, they should be inclined to use the method employed with college Seniors of twenty-two upon the immaturity of first-year classes—children of fifteen. These conditions being true, it is not strange that the teacher and the pupil do not always understand each other, and that the teaching is not adapted to the children. Under the circumstances the children lose interest. The teacher, entirely conscientious though he be, becomes disheartened. He wonders why the pupils, as revealed in the tests, have got so little from his instruction; no small part of which has, perhaps, been given from his chair back of the desk. Too often the children work the teacher, when the teacher should work them.

In spite of the excellent work done in English, history, and

physics in the high schools, these are among the subjects which suffer most from maladjustment. Of all the crimes in the educational calendar, the forcing of adult standards upon children is among the worst.

All of this is not a reflection upon the teachers or colleges. It is merely a statement of existing conditions which will be made better, not all at once, but gradually, as the need of better-trained teachers is more fully realized, as salaries become better, and as colleges and universities find the way to establish schools of practice.

A teacher trained by means of a combination of theory, observation, and practice is more ready to be directed by the principal, superintendent, or the head of the department, assuming that principal, superintendent, or head of department is in action. Such a teacher realizes that most high-school pupils are still children, boys in short trousers and girls in short skirts. Such a teacher is likely to read a book like Chubb's *Teaching of English*, or Bagley's *Educative Process*, or Sachs's *The American Secondary School*, or James's *Talks to Teachers*, with some interest. Such a teacher is not likely to neglect teachers' conventions or associations. Such a teacher is likely to realize that the last word in education was not said fifty years ago.

The boys and girls in our high schools compose a great miscellaneous class, who come from all conditions of homes. Few will go to college. Two or three generations ago secondary pupils usually came from homes in which there were some traditions of culture. Because of this and other reasons which cannot be pointed out in the limits of this paper, the simplicity of the former school has been succeeded by the complexity of the modern school. A new sort of teacher is, therefore, demanded, if all these young people are to be trained, and not merely some of them. They need teachers who recognize differences in individuals; teachers who are open-minded to new ideals in education made necessary by new social and economic conditions.

There is abundant evidence that college teachers of education are convinced of the need of training by means of schools of practice. Such training, wherever it is possible to bring it about, would not only result in better teaching in the high school, but it

would also vitally influence the standards of the large number of young women who go from the high schools into the elementary schools by way of the normal schools. It would, therefore, be of indirect value to the multitude of children in the elementary schools. Mr. Carnegie could not do a better thing for education than to furnish \$25,000 a year for the maintenance of a good school of observation and practice, in connection with a university.

Large expense, however, is not necessary in making the beginnings of a practice school. A combination between high schools and the college or university, for the purpose of providing training facilities, is possible, because it has already been made, as will be shown later.

Administrative difficulties are in the way, it is true, but in a measure they may be overcome. Dr. John P. Brown, in his excellent book *The Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools*, presents very clearly the possible advantages both to the department of education and to the neighboring high school, as a result of co-operation for practice. The department of education would gain because of the opportunities to test out its theories in the high school. The high school would gain because of the professional stimulus which would come to regular teachers by contact with the educational department of the college.

The possibility of this co-operation is conditioned upon adequate administration, and upon sufficient facilities for direct and abundant supervision. The pupils in the high school, whose interests are paramount, should not be made to suffer. No one would propose that an entire school be used as a practice school; only a few or some of the classes would be so used. A class taught a half-year in one subject by a student-teacher whose academic specialty is that subject would not be retarded, because the critic teacher, either from the school or from the college, would be at hand.

It is to be admitted that we are a long way from the attainment of these ends in the training of high-school teachers, but a beginning has been made.

At Harvard, in the second half-year of the course in education, each student is placed in charge of a classroom in one of the high schools in Cambridge, or in a selected neighboring city. He

teaches the class under the common conditions of classroom work. He teaches three to six periods a week for a half-year, having full responsibility for the work of the class. The student is under the double supervision of a member of the department and a representative of the local school system.

Since 1908 there has been an agreement between Brown University and the city of Providence for the training of teachers by means of practice in the city schools. Candidates must have a degree from a reputable college or university. There are two types of the student-teacher. Students of the first type teach part time, and are paid by the city at the rate of \$400 a year. Students of the second type must accomplish 125 hours of observation, individual instruction, and class teaching, in a year. These are not paid. The work of all these teachers is under the supervision of a representative of the department of education, and of the city schools.

At Indiana University an agreement for practice teaching has been made between the university and the city of Bloomington, in which the university is located. Definite requirements are made of teachers before they are admitted to the practice schools, such as the maturity of judgment represented by Senior or postgraduate standing in the university, and a knowledge of general pedagogical problems. The student-teacher enters upon his work in the local high school in one of the following subjects: botany, English, history, mathematics, physical geography, or zoölogy. He works under the direction of a well-trained critic teacher. The general supervision of the whole critic school is delegated to the high-school principal, working in co-operation with the head of the department of secondary education. The student teaches one period daily, one-half of the school year. He also enrolls pupils, looks after class records, grades manuscripts, and performs in short all the phases of a regular teacher's duties. It is real teaching, both in intent and in result.

In California, as before pointed out, there must be one year of postgraduate work for inexperienced teachers, one-half of which is spent in the study of education, which usually includes practice teaching. Opportunities for practice teaching may be had either in selected high schools or in the normal schools of the state.

In an important city, half a dozen college graduates are trained each year in the grammar grades, under competent critic teachers. These young women are selected with care. They are paid moderately for their services during the half-year of their service, which is real teaching. Eventually most of them become teachers in the high schools, where their ability is recognized.

There is abundant testimony from those out on the firing-line—namely, superintendents of schools—as to the value of practice training for secondary teachers. Superintendents in a typical progressive middle western state were recently asked to express their opinion as to the value of practice training. Eighty-two out of eighty-four expressed themselves in no uncertain terms as to the need for such training.

I quote from letters from superintendents of schools in widely separated but typical parts of the country. Says Superintendent Van Sickle, of Springfield, Mass.:

There is no greater need anywhere in the service than in the high schools, for thoroughly trained teachers. There is no doubt in my mind that much of the mortality in the early high-school years is due to bad teaching; not all, of course, but a good deal. In cities like Springfield, and in large cities where the salaries are such as to enable school boards to attract high-school teachers from the smaller places, teachers can be had who by a few years' experimenting on children have developed a satisfactory method.

Says Associate Superintendent Wheeler, of Philadelphia:

We have no difficulty in securing college graduates who are well equipped with knowledge of the subjects which they desire to teach, but we find practically none who have received any training in the *teaching* of those subjects. Fortunately, we are able to secure many who have learned to teach by teaching in other places.

But the fact remains that scarcely one has been trained to teach. What high-school teachers know about teaching is almost invariably learned after they have been appointed. The colleges ought to give the prospective high-school teacher definite training in the profession of teaching.

Says Superintendent Blewett, of St. Louis:

I believe that we still have a very great weakness in our high-school work because of the lack of specific professional training of the teachers in these schools. Many of our experienced grade teachers have a very much greater skill in presenting the subjects with which they are familiar because of their better pedagogic training, because of a too narrow scholarship in the special subjects they would be called upon to teach in the high schools.

Says Superintendent Frank Cooper, of Seattle:

My own view is that high-school teachers need to be trained away from college and university standards for young people. It should be made clear to them in some way that the college or university method, while good for men and women, is not suitable for boys and girls. They should be diverted early from the idea that specialization is a saving function in the high school. In many instances the high-school teacher does not become a specialist, but a routinist. They teach one thing and teach it five times a day, acquiring facility and dexterity, but sacrificing inspirational and cultural effects. What we want in high-school teachers is power to use subject-matter as an instrument, personality, and the kind of professional spirit that warms up to man-making through teaching.

It would be possible to quote similar expressions indefinitely.

I have not attempted to discuss the training of teachers for the various phases of industrial training, which is becoming so important a part of the work of so many secondary schools.

This is the conclusion I wish to express: That of the four kinds of possible training for secondary teachers—the academic, courses in education, observation, and practice teaching—the first three are in the main satisfactorily carried on. The last, practice teaching, has not been developed as the needs of the schools demand. Opportunities for practice are available only to a limited extent. An extension of these opportunities is necessary if there is to be a real, vital preparation for teaching, as for a profession, and for increased efficiency in the high schools.

## THE ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF THE SOUTHERN STATES<sup>\*</sup>

CHANCELLOR J. H. KIRKLAND  
Vanderbilt University

The Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Southern States held its first meeting in Atlanta, Ga., November 6, 1895. This is, therefore, the eighteenth annual meeting. Perhaps at this time it will not be amiss to renew briefly the way we have come, to consider the tasks already undertaken and in part accomplished, and to note the work still remaining for us to do.

It was a small group of men that met in the chapel of the Georgia School of Technology seventeen years ago. Sixteen delegates were present, representing twelve institutions. No speeches were made. There were no outbursts of eloquence, for there was no gallery to play to. But there was much earnest discussion. A serious tone pervaded the gathering. Men discussed the educational situation in the South with frankness and sincerity. Each delegate spoke of his own institution, not to laud or magnify, but to set forth its weaknesses and its shortcomings. In considering the possible organization of an association it was recognized that there was no need of a general educational gathering. Such needs were already supplied, and we had no desire to add to the list. We did have in mind an annual gathering where the peculiar problems of schools and colleges might be discussed and illuminated, but we had also a more distinct purpose than this. The new association was to be a group of institutions pledged to certain standards. It was a compact. Membership in the association was not an honor, but an obligation, the observance of which was not without its inconvenience and cost. The fundamental principles of the association were embodied in the constitution and by-laws, and there was a pledge, either expressed or under-

<sup>\*</sup> President's address delivered at Wafford College, Spartanburg, S.C., November 15, 1912.

stood, that the provisions of the by-laws should be observed. At the same time, care was taken that these provisions should be few in number and of reasonable import. The association has never sought to interfere with the freedom of each institution. The colleges and universities constituting its membership represent varying types and differ in a score of particulars. The points on which uniformity has been demanded have been a few essential principles accepted and approved by all. We have exercised a wise self-restraint, and no complaint has ever been made of unjust legislation. No institution has ever withdrawn from our association through a sense of wrong done or a lack of sympathy with our purposes. The single withdrawal of a college once a member was occasioned by the increase in our requirements, and the institution so withdrawing has continued to affiliate with us.

While our association was formed for the purpose of general co-operation in all the work of school and college, yet our attention was first directed to one particular task, the adjustment of the relationship between the high school and the college. At that time most colleges conducted preparatory classes. Students left the high school at almost any stage of their preparation and applied for admission to college. If it appeared excusable they were admitted to the Freshman class; if this seemed impossible they entered one of the sub-Freshman classes. The effect of such a practice on the schools can easily be imagined, and indeed is well remembered by most of us. There was no opportunity left for independent school work of a high grade. Colleges and schools competed for the same students, and unfortunately the colleges won in too many cases. While this state of affairs still persists to some extent among some institutions, there has been great improvement in the past seventeen years. To meet this condition was our first task. Our plan of attack was along three different lines.

In the first place, a by-law was adopted prohibiting all preparatory classes. The subclasses in English, mathematics, Latin, and Greek, so characteristic of every institution, were declared intolerable. This experiment had been tried with marked success at Vanderbilt University seven years before the organization of

the southern association, and Vanderbilt's experience was a great encouragement to other institutions. Without this we should hardly have been bold enough to advocate such a reduction in attendance. It was believed that if a few could be found willing to take such a step their experience would commend this action to others. We looked also to the schools to bring some pressure to bear on the colleges and throw their support to those institutions that left to the schools a field in which to live and work.

In the second place, we undertook to define the admission requirements for the Freshman class. These requirements seem now extremely low, but at that time it was not easy for many institutions to meet them, particularly as no subclasses were left to catch the unprepared. The requirements covered the subjects of English, Latin, Greek, mathematics, and history. In English we accepted from the beginning the national standard, then known as the requirement of the Association of Schools and Colleges in the Middle States and Maryland. In Latin our requirements measured about  $2\frac{1}{2}$  units, in Greek a little less than 2, in mathematics  $1\frac{1}{2}$ , and in history 1. These amounted altogether to nearly ten units, provided the student proposed to take all these subjects. But no substitutes were demanded for Latin and Greek in case the student did not take the classics. All such students could enter on  $5\frac{1}{2}$  units, and irregular students could even be received on English and history alone, equal to 4 units. No doubt these irregular or non-classical students had studied other subjects, but there was no well-defined or accepted substitute for Latin and Greek that could be counted on; therefore, our association made no provision for other subjects than those named.

In the third place, colleges belonging to the association were required to hold entrance examinations of the scope above indicated and to print their questions, depositing copies with the secretary of the association. In this way publicity guaranteed security, as in the management of the trusts. Papers unreasonably easy were an object of ridicule. As these papers went into the hands of teachers, they offered a basis on which the work of the college might be appraised. Not only the entering Freshmen were graded on these papers, but the professors and the colleges as well.

Certificates were allowed from the beginning. No attempt was made to force examination of all students. But it was assumed that a considerable number of students would be examined. In the absence of reliable high schools, public or private, it was supposed that only a few students would be able to bring satisfactory certificates. We did not then foresee the rapid growth of public high schools and the universal rebellion on the part of pupils and teachers against the hardship and indignity of entrance examinations.

With these explanations it is not hard to understand that few institutions were ready to accept the regulations agreed on. Only six colleges entered into the compact, viz., Vanderbilt University, the University of North Carolina, Sewanee, Mississippi, Washington and Lee, and Trinity College. Even these were secured through concessions. The general requirements were not to become effective until September, 1897, and the requirement in Greek in 1898. Thus, and thus only, was the southern association brought into being.

As a matter of fact, the requirement in Greek never became effective. A strong effort was made to have Greek taught in our schools so as to enable us to enforce our entrance requirement, but without success. At the second meeting of the association in 1896 three papers were presented on the study of Greek, one by Vice-Chancellor Wiggins of Sewanee. Even then the suggestion had been made that Greek should be begun in college, but Dr. Wiggins opposed this vigorously. The next year a series of reports was presented on the requirements of the association and the methods of study in various subjects. That on Greek was prepared by Messrs. Wiggins, John M. Webb, and Bocock. This report declared that the existing requirements in Greek, viz., three books of the *Anabasis*, were reasonable and could soon be met. In the discussion President Raymond of the University of West Virginia made a strong plea for beginning Greek in college. While we were all discussing the reasonableness of the requirements in Greek, Professor P. H. Saunders of the University of Mississippi was getting ready to meet them. His work was described in a paper presented to the association in 1899. Pro-

fessor Saunders gave courses in Greek to the teachers of Mississippi at the summer normal. He also opened a correspondence course, and by his personal influence secured pupils for it. At the time of his paper in 1899, forty-four schools were teaching Greek, and thirty-one had been affiliated with the university in that subject. Twenty-eight students met the requirement for admission to the Freshman class in Greek in 1899, and seven others were only partially deficient. Unfortunately, Professor Saunders stood almost alone in this work and the requirements of the association were postponed year by year. Finally, in 1902, the association adopted by-laws, unchanged in this respect today, placing Greek with French and German and allowing all of them to be begun in college. In this matter of Greek the plans of the association failed. We were trying to stem a tide too strong for us and wisely decided to yield to the inevitable with grace and promptness. None the less do we admire and honor those schools that still retain the study of Greek and those colleges that still demand classical attainments for the A.B. degree.

Let us now consider other changes that have been made in the program of the association with passing years. At the eighth annual meeting held in 1902 the requirements for admission were revised, and French, German, and science were introduced. Candidates for A.B. offering Latin and Greek were not disturbed by the new rules, but non-classical students were now required to offer English, 3 units; mathematics,  $1\frac{1}{2}$  units; modern languages, 4 units; history, 1 unit; science, 1 unit; total,  $10\frac{1}{2}$  units. This was approximately equal to the demands made on classical students. The demands made on irregular students remained pitifully weak, not more than  $5\frac{1}{2}$  units.

Inasmuch as colleges were now allowed openly to furnish preparatory instruction in French, German, and Greek, it was evidently impossible longer to enforce the first by-law which forbade this entirely. This by-law was therefore amended by adding the words "except as allowed in section 3 below." At a later date, in 1908, when the association adopted the present by-laws effective in 1910, the rule was changed so as to forbid a regular preparatory department conducted as part of the college

organization. The rules of the association on this point become less important as the admission requirements are increased. If every student entering college presented fourteen units, without condition or deficiency of any kind, it would not be necessary to provide any measures against preparatory classes or departments. But one main purpose of our association has always been to foster and protect high schools, and colleges should not be allowed to enrol students for the completion of their high-school course, providing suitable classes for that purpose. The spirit of our laws may be thus interpreted: No student entering college on less than fourteen units, satisfactorily and completely passed, should be allowed to enter any classes for the sake of making up his conditions except in Greek, French, or German, and no classes other than these should be maintained for that purpose.

In another particular the rules of the association have suffered a change. At first each institution was required to print its entrance examination papers and file copies with the secretary. This law is not part of our present requirements. Two causes have brought about the change. Since May, 1905, we have printed a general set of examination questions and circulated them in the name of the association. Members of the association have set these papers as their own. But in addition to this fact, there has been an almost entire abandonment of examinations as a means of entering college. It would be of interest to know just how many students entered college on examination this year among all our members. Vanderbilt has been trying to hold to its traditions, but we do so with increasing difficulty. At present we are falling back on a compromise measure, examining chiefly on the work of the last year and accepting certificates for the earlier years. This general abandonment of the examining system seems to make it unnecessary and undesirable longer to continue our practice of printing examination papers. If these papers are not used by the colleges there is no sufficient justification for their publication.

The latest step in our development as an association was taken in 1908, and consisted in the adoption of new requirements for admission, which became operative in 1910. Every institution belonging to the association must now require fourteen units for

admission to any degree course in its literary department. Irregular students must offer at least ten units. The association now has practically no other requirements than these. Colleges make their own regulations as to the specific subjects demanded and as to their treatment of deficient students. The association does not interfere here with regulations. Still, the way is open for discussion, for counsel, and for warning, and we may be of service to each other without the enactment of laws. Certainly the question of standards is affected distinctly by our attitude on these points.

We have now briefly surveyed the progress we have made since the formation of our association. It has not been startling, but it has been steady. We have held fast to our ideals and we have not gone backward. We have exercised a wholesome influence on higher education in the South and we are approaching national standards in school and college work. And we shall not cease nor shall we be satisfied until we attain them.

The task immediately before us is the development of a sensible, reasonable system of certification. This will require faithful work for a number of years. If all students are to be received by the colleges on certificate, then it is surely incumbent on us to see that the certificate has a definite meaning, that it is in satisfactory form, that it is a guaranty of a worthy high-school course behind it. The list of accredited schools ought to be a roll of honor, and we must make it so. Certificates constantly accepted at the present time in fulfilment of our entrance requirements are often meaningless and worthless. But there are other tasks that await us, and I make bold to suggest some of them.

Our requirements for admission need further amendment in the near future. We must not deceive ourselves with the claim that we have adopted a fourteen-unit standard. The significant fact remains that students may be and are received on ten units. It is possible to enter our Freshman classes with less than three years of high-school work. Are we not ready to put a stop to these minimum requirements? Ought we to put a premium on the worst form of college course, viz., the irregular course, and invite callow youths to leave the high school after two years to

enter college? My proposition is that no student be received whose certificate does not show twelve units satisfactorily completed. No conditions or deficiencies should be allowed below twelve units. This means at least the completion of a three-year high-school course. Between twelve and fourteen units is the field for conditions, for we must adhere to fourteen units as the full requirement for admission. The deficiencies of any entering student should further be taken into account in arranging the work of the first year. The chairman of the entrance committee should have authority so to arrange and limit this work that all these deficiencies be made up during the year and before the student is allowed to matriculate for his second year. Let the student thus deficient be treated as on trial and only partly a matriculate. He should not be allowed to represent his college on athletic or other teams nor to join a fraternity. His attention should be kept strictly to study until he has made good his deficiency. While some of these suggestions are not suited for incorporation in our by-laws, I fully believe we are now ready to adopt an absolute minimum standard of twelve units without conditions of any kind.

I am further of the opinion that in recommending schools and colleges for membership in the association the executive committee should have some discretion outside of the few rigid restrictions imposed through our by-laws. There are tests of eligibility that cannot and should not be made into fixed enactments. I should also like to see provision made for receiving individuals as members of the association on payment of two dollars as an annual fee. This I would do without giving them the right to vote on constitutional amendments. I would increase the annual dues of colleges and universities to ten dollars, leaving schools to pay five dollars as at present. All these suggestions might be covered by a few changes in our constitution, as follows:

#### ARTICLE II

SECTION 1. The members of the association shall consist of three classes: first, colleges and universities; second, schools; third, individuals.

SEC. 2. Election to membership shall be only at regular annual meetings and on recommendation of the executive committee, which committee shall judge of the eligibility of an institution in matters not explicitly covered by

the constitution and by-laws. The character and tone of an institution are factors of consequence in determining eligibility.

SEC. 3. In transacting the ordinary business of the association all delegates present shall be entitled to vote, but amendments to the constitution and by-laws shall only be made by the first two classes of members, each institution having one vote.

ARTICLE VI

To meet the expenses of the association an annual fee of ten dollars shall be paid by each college or university; five dollars by each school; and two dollars by each individual member. Failure to pay dues for two years in succession forfeits membership.

BY-LAW 3

Fourteen units are required of all students admitted to college. Conditions are allowed to the extent of two units only, and all conditions or deficiencies must be removed during the first year in college. College work taken to remove conditions must not be counted toward a degree.

The southern association has had a creditable history. It has held fast to a definite line of work, and has exercised a strong influence on standards of higher education in southern institutions. Its task is not yet accomplished. We cannot be true or useful unless we recognize present duties and present tasks. Some of these have been set before us in this paper and will doubtless be met by the association in the same spirit in which it has undertaken other improvements.

## GEORGE MEREDITH'S INTEREST IN EDUCATION

LUCY HEALD

Cambridge, Massachusetts

"He who's for us, for him are we!" These words from one of George Meredith's poems may well be applied to the proper attitude of teachers toward all who by public words dignify the profession of teaching. Yet it is probable that few teachers outside an English department realize his claim to our gratitude and attention. Fiction is not popularly associated with information and argument. To be sure, we have in *Nicholas Nickleby* a classic example of fiction dealing with education. But this illustration is usually forgotten when fiction is classified. Names of professional psychologists less acute than Meredith are doubtless familiar to a larger group of teachers than is his name. His critics have ascribed to him an ethical purpose, a habit of combining with relation revelation, and such purpose is evident to the casual reader, even. His *Letters* frankly confess the reformatory nature of his work, the most complete expression of which purpose is found in a letter to Professor George P. Baker of Harvard:

I think that all right use of life, and the one secret of life, is to pave ways for the firmer footing of those who succeed us: as to my works, I know them faulty, think them of worth only when they point and aid to that end. Close knowledge of our fellows, discernment of the laws of existence, these lead to great civilization. I have supposed that the novel, exposing and illustrating the natural history of man, may help us to such sustaining roadside gifts.

The special subjects that Meredith intended to emphasize in his writings were admitted to be, in an interview with Mr. Foster Watson,<sup>1</sup> education and the emancipation of woman. There is a class of critics who, though acknowledging the importance of such subjects, object to the use of even such important subjects in fiction, which they claim to be primarily a form of art, a mere reproduction of life. Meredith himself discredited this narrow function of

<sup>1</sup> "Meredith and Education," *Nineteenth Century*, LXVII.

fiction, as is shown in the introductory chapter of *Diana of the Crossways*; here he describes imaginatively yet frankly the nature of "the novelist's Art, now neither blushless infant nor executive man," when it shall

have attained its majority. We can then be veraciously historical, honestly transcriptive. . . . Honourable will fiction then appear; honourable, a fount of life, an aid to life, quick with our blood . . . be wary of the disrelish of brainstuff. You must feed on something. . . . Brainstuff is not lean stuff; the brainstuff of fiction is internal history, and to suppose it dull is the profoundest of errors. . . . As much as legs are wanted for the dance, Philosophy is required to make our human nature creditable and acceptable. Fiction implores you to heave a bigger breast.

"Honourable" must fiction of Meredith's purpose be. Such fiction is useful not only to the English department. Meredith's writings merit the attention of all teachers. His most eminent critic, Mr. George Macaulay Trevelyan, the historian, says regarding the charge that "Meredith has exaggerated the importance of considering future generations"

he has only filled up a void left by too many others. . . . our duty to the future that we shall not see is associated in our minds with Mill rather than with Wordsworth, with Herbert Spencer rather than with Dante. This is not as it should be; and Mr. Meredith, in his capacity of poet and poetic novelist, has done what he could to apply a remedy. . . . Mr. Meredith thinks that the irresponsible rich do not take as large a part as they should take in the various activities that regard the coming generations—the rearing of families, social reform, artistic creation, the endowment of educational and other public institutions, and the ordinary economic production on which society rests.

All these things

Keep the young generations in hail,  
And bequeath to them no tumbled house.

Obscurity of style is probably associated with Meredith's name as intimately as are the titles of his books. This disadvantage must be one reason why his social ideas have not become better known. The two topics that I have mentioned as the themes about which he is most in earnest are combined in the novel named *Lord Ormont and His Aminta*. This belongs to a series of four novels produced within a decade and all dealing with the difficulties caused by unsuitable marriages. The educational plan, which is the secondary

theme, suffers from its connection with the main theme; it is difficult to believe whole-heartedly in the success of a school, the headmaster of which has eloped with another man's wife. In this case not only the style but the author's specific solution for the difficulty that he very clearly exposes is obscure. But the plan for the ideal school shows imagination and originality. I shall quote Meredith's own words describing this school, because these passages are not only intelligible but graphic.

The opening chapter of *Lord Ormont* contains a description of a snow-fight between two teams of a boys' school, witnessed by a girls' school, and includes this interesting comment:

Those girls had a leap and a fall of the heart, glad to hug themselves in dry clothes, and not so warm as the dripping boys were, nor so madly fond of their dress-circle seats to look on at a play they were not allowed even to desire to share. . . . The thought of the difference between themselves and the boys must have been something like the tight band—call it corset—over the chest, trying to lift and stretch for draughts of air.

This passage is indicative of Meredith's outcry against many conventions that hamper the female sex. The hero of this novel, Matthew Weyburn, gives his reasons for his choice of teaching as a profession as follows:

"Why did you not enter the service?"

"Want of an income, my lady."

"Bad look-out. Army or Navy for gentlemen, if they stick to the school of honour. The sedentary occupations corrupt men."

"Her mind was very clear up to the last hour upon all subjects interesting her son. She at one time regretted his not being a soldier, for the sake of his father's memory. Then she learned to think he could do more for the world as a schoolmaster. She said you can persuade."

"We had our talks. She would have the reason if she was to be won. I like no other kind of persuasion."

"I can hardly understand a young Frenchman's not entering the army," she said.

"The Napoleonic legend is weaker now," said he.

"The son of an officer!"

"Grandson!"

"It was his choice to be—he gave it up without reluctance?"

"Émile obeyed the command of his parents," Weyburn answered; and he

was obedient to the veiled direction of her remark, in speaking of himself: "I had a reason, too."

"One wonders!"

"It would have impoverished my mother's income to put aside a small allowance for me for years. She would not have hesitated. I then set my mind on the profession of schoolmaster."

"Émile Grenat was a brave boy. Has he no regrets?"

"Neither of us has a regret."

"He began ambitiously."

"It's the way at the beginning."

"It is not usually abjured."

"I am afraid we neither of us 'dignify our calling' by discontent with it!"

A dusky flush worth seeing came on her cheeks. "I respect enthusiasms," she said, and it was as good to him to hear as the begging pardon, though clearly she could not understand enthusiasm for the schoolmaster's career.

"I have the belief that I shall succeed, because I like boys, and they like me. . . . I have my boys already waiting for me to found the school . . . in Switzerland."

"When?" said Aminta.

"A relative from whom a reversion comes is near the end. It won't be later than September that I shall go. My Swiss friend has the school, and would take me at once before he retires."

"You make friends wherever you go," said Aminta.

"Why shouldn't everybody? I'm convinced it's because I show people I mean well, and I never nurse an injury, great or small. And besides they see I look forward. I do hope good for the world."

It is evident from the foregoing that Meredith felt obliged to justify, if not to apologize for, his hero's occupation. The following description of his personal appearance seems intended to surprise the reader as well as Lady Charlotte Eglett in the story:

Lady Charlotte's blunt "Oh"! when he entered her room and bowed upon the announcement of his name, was caused by an instantaneous perception and reflection that it would be prudent to keep her granddaughter Philippa, aged between seventeen and eighteen, out of his way. . . . She did not blame Arthur Abner for sending her a good-looking young man; she had only a general idea that tutors in a house, and even visiting tutors, should smell of dust and wear a snuff appearance.

We are told furthermore of Weyburn's appearance: "He could not help his being a handsome fellow, having a vivid face and eyes transparent, whether blue or green, to flame of the brain exciting them. . . ."

So attractive in person and mind is Weyburn that many readers must agree with Mr. Elmer James Bailey when he says (*The Novels of George Meredith: a Study*): "The reader, when he lays down the book, is somewhat shocked to realize that he has almost unconsciously been led into approval of what society regards as an immoral situation." But the marriage problem of the book does not prevent our belief that, without relation to social ties outside the school, Weyburn and his wife were noble and original teachers. We should be grateful to Meredith for making them dignified, cultured, and ardent. This book might encourage aspiring young men to follow Weyburn's example in the choice of a profession. He is socially superior to most teachers in real life, for Lady Charlotte had suggested that he was a gentleman, in the English sense, by recommending to him the army or navy as a profession.

I will add some sentences describing the mind and soul of Weyburn:

. . . . he was now a young man, stoutly and cognisantly on the climb, with a good aim overhead, and green youth's enthusiasms a step below his heels: one of the lovers of life, beautiful to behold, when we spy into them. . . . Weyburn knew that a spice of passion added to a bowl of reason makes a sophist's mess. . . . Nor had she, nor could she do more than lean on and catch example from his prompt spiritual valiancy. It shone out from him, and crisis fulfilled the promise.

"Spiritual valiancy!" Is there a more desirable quality for a schoolmaster?

Weyburn's plans for his Swiss school were noble in conception.

"The spot fixed on is in Switzerland."

"You will have scenery."

"I hold to that as an influence."

"If at my school we have all nationalities—French boys and German, Italian, Russian, Spaniard—without distinction of race and religion and station, and with English intermixing—English games, English sense of honour and conception of gentleman—we shall help to nationalize Europe."

He spoke to Weyburn of his prospects in the usually, perhaps necessarily, cheerless tone of men who recognize by contrast the one mouse's nibbling at a mountain of evil. "To harmonize the nationalities, my dear boy! teach Christians to look fraternally on Jews! David was a harper, but the sitting of him down to roll off a fugue on one of your cathedral organs would not impose

a heavier task than you are undertaking." . . . "You have beaten the Christians on the field they challenged you to enter for a try. They feel the pinch in their interests and their vanity. That will pass. I'm for the two sides, under the name of Justice; and I give the palm to whichever of the two first gets hold of the idea of Justice."

In the final chapter, an old pupil thus recommends the school:

"I was a sneak and a coward. It follows, I was a liar and a traitor. Who cured me of that vileness, that scandal? I will tell you: an Englishman and an Englishwoman—my schoolmaster and his wife. My schoolmaster—my friend! He is the comrade of his boys: English, French, Germans, Italians, a Spaniard, in my time. A South American I have sent him—two from Boston, Massachusetts, and clever! all emulous to excel, none boasting. . . . He works for Europe and America—all civilized people—to be one country. He is the comrade of his boys. Out of school hours it is Christian names all round. . . . But if the boys are naughty boys, it is not the privilege. Mr. Weyburn."

If I have influenced any of my readers to read *Lord Ormont and His Aminta* for the first time, I shall have accomplished something for the cause of education; but I warn any such reader that he will find the general level of the book, in spite of exquisite new passages, below the quotations I have given.

Meredith is "for us," but he can never be our champion to the extent that his ideas deserve, on account of the obscurity of his style; in the case of *Lord Ormont*, the imperfect social scheme lessens the consideration given to the educational scheme. This is hardly just.

We are in the habit of thinking adolescence a subject peculiarly interesting to teachers and defined originally by Clark University. Meredith's *Ordeal of Richard Feveril* (1859) contains a description of adolescence that, though not so accurate as our pedagogical data, gives an impression of personality that can hardly be put together out of the pedagogic list of attributes. Meredith's boys—a gallant band—all possess a distinct ego, a directing force, approaching spirituality. The diminutive hero is still heroic. Biography shows the spirit animating the energies—the canny young Franklin bent on self-improvement, the solitary Hawthorne; but in the analytic charts that we map of our pupils do we take into account this personality? I feel that children are all that the tables

state plus something more. Meredith grants to children, even, marked personalities; to him callow youth are yet centered. Young Richard Feveril shows most of the traits we have been taught to regard as characteristic of adolescence; but beyond this there is ardor of youth, the soul of the mechanism, that has a romantic charm. We acknowledge the religious and generally emotional character of adolescence; but I have yet to find a professional psychologist that speaks of adolescents with emotion. Meredith can help us to "heave a bigger breast." I will quote in illustration from an early chapter of *The Ordeal of Richard Feveril*, a novel devoted to the subject of a father's scheme for educating his son, and therefore one of the novels that are of interest to us.

The boy's mind was opening, and turned to his father affectionately reverent. At this period, when the young savage grows into higher influences, the faculty of worship is foremost in him. At this period Jesuits will stamp the future of their chargin'g flocks; and all who bring up youth by a System, and watch it, know that it is the malleable moment. Boys possessing any mental or moral force to give them a tendency then predestinate their careers; or, if under supervision, take the impress that is given them: not often to cast it off, and seldom to cast it off altogether.

In Sir Austin's Note-book was written: "Between Simple Boyhood and Adolescence—The Blossoming Season—on the threshold of Puberty, there is one Unselfish Hour—say, Spiritual Seed-time."

He took care that good seed should be planted in Richard, and that the most fruitful seed for a youth, namely, Example, should be of a kind to germinate in him the love of every form of nobleness.

"I am only striving to make my son a Christian," he said, answering them who persisted in expostulating with the System. And to these instructions he gave an aim: "First be virtuous," he told his son, "and then serve your country with heart and soul." The youth was instructed to cherish an ambition for statesmanship, and he and his father read history and the speeches of British orators to some purpose; for one day Sir Austin found him leaning cross-legged, and with one hand to his chin, against a pedestal supporting the bust of Chatham, contemplating the hero of our Parliament, his eyes streaming with tears. . . . The Bread-and-water phase lasted a fortnight: the Vegetarian—a little better than a month; the religious, somewhat longer; the religious-propagandist—longer still, and hard to bear. . . .

Richard's pride also was cast aside. He affected to be, and really thought he was, humble. Whereupon Adrian [his cousin and tutor], as by accident, imparted to him the fact that men were animals, and he an animal with the rest of them.

"An animal!" cried Richard in scorn, and for weeks he was as troubled by this rudiment of self-knowledge as Tom [the farmer's son] by his letters. Sir Austin had him instructed in the wonders of anatomy, to restore his self-respect. . . . [he] retired into himself, where he was growing to be lord of kingdoms: where Beauty was his handmaid, and History his minister, and Time his ancient harper, and sweet Romance his bride; where he walked in a realm vaster and more gorgeous than the great Orient, peopled with the heroes that have been.

We recognize in these quotations the chief characteristics of adolescence known to pedagogy. But Meredith's presentation of them gives to the possessor a charm and a reality that our statistics cannot effect. When we read "contemplating the hero of our Parliament, his eyes streaming with tears," we think, "Noble, ingenuous boy!" Too much study of questionnaires produces an impersonal and unattractive impression of the subject studied. Meredith can teach us to study not detached attributes but personality.

A prominent character in *Richard Feveril* is Adrian Harley, the tutor. His work is not in proportion to the importance of his office. He may be dismissed with this description, that he was addicted to making jokes "delicately not decent, though so delicately so that it was not decent to perceive it."

To change comparisons for a moment, Meredith's treatment of boyhood gives it more dignity than does that of many writers of fiction. This may be seen in comparing Stevenson with Meredith. Stevenson, in describing characteristically the child's ordeal of going to bed alone, says:

Then let us rise and go like men,  
And face with an undaunted tread  
The long black passage up to bed.

This is making fun, good-naturedly and tenderly, of a child's fears. To Meredith a child's feelings are more dignified. Possibly he errs on the side of idealizing his little heroes, but at least he is not condescending.

He thus describes the emotions of little Harry Richmond, in the novel of that name, when discovered by his grandfather's grooms on a lonely heath at nightfall; as he wandered he had had wild thoughts of running away to sea, to enlist, to search for his lost father: "I rode home like a wounded man made to feel proud by victory, but

with no one to stop the bleeding of his wounds; and the more my pride rose, the more I suffered pain." In this fictitious autobiography Harry Richmond is of course speaking half humorously of this childhood experience, yet also with the idea of presenting to us the brave spirit of his boyhood. This attractive quality, a glowing spirit, is what I value most in Meredith's transcript of youth; I do not feel sure that he here is psychologically accurate but I believe that he points the way to what we need to recognize—intimations of spirituality in the child and youth. Our child-study seems here deficient. Personality, spirituality, ardor, these are possessed by Meredith's boy heroes. This makes good reading and is, I believe, valuably suggestive to us. We need to be emotionally affected by the young if we are to teach them well.

*The Adventures of Harry Richmond* contains among its minor characters the Herr Professor Dr. Julius von Karsteg, tutor to a German princess, a "man distinguished even in Germany for scholarship." His acceptance of the tutorship was an honor to the intelligence of the Princess. Through him Meredith voices his ideas on the danger of irresponsible wealth, for such an important social subject is not above the office of a Herr Doctor, in Meredith's opinion. There are other examples in his novels of scholarship acting as an authority on social questions.

*The Egoist* contains, according to the critics, Meredith's most masterly portrait of boyhood in the character of Crossjay Patternne. His teacher, Vernon Whitford, the hero of the book, having thus estimated Crossjay's qualities, planned how the boy might enter the navy: "'Crossjay has a bullet head, fit neither for the University nor the drawing-room,' said Vernon; 'equal to fighting and dying for you, and that's all.'" The boy does not seem to me entirely natural, but this much, at least, is as lifelike as it is likable:

. . . a rosy-cheeked, round-bodied rogue of a boy, who fell upon meats and puddings, and defeated them, with a captivating simplicity in his confession that he had never had enough to eat in his life. . . . He was not only indolent, he was opposed to the acquisition of knowledge through the medium of books, and would say, "But I don't want to!" in a tone to make a logician thoughtful. Nature was very strong in him. He had, on each return of the hour of instruction, to be plucked out of the earth, rank of the soil, like a root, for the exercise of his big round headpiece on those tyrannous puzzles. But

the habits of birds, and the place for their eggs, and the management of rabbits, and the tickling of fish, and poaching joys with combative boys of the district, and how to wheedle a cook for a luncheon for a whole day in the rain, he soon knew of his great nature.

I have mentioned a second instance of Meredith's hero being a teacher. Vernon Whitford is a more attractive hero than Matthew Weyburn, but the latter, who appears in a later book is, pedagogically sounder. Whitford's "sharply tutorial" manner suggests earlier ideals of discipline. But his relations with Crossjay, and the heroine's affection for the child, attract the reader's attention to the subject so interesting to Meredith, the care of the young.

In *Evan Harrington* the tutor John Raikes, a minor character, is a second instance of a disagreeable personality being assigned to this occupation. But while Adrian Harley was base, John Raikes is harmless and unimportant to the story. Here the tutor is used by Meredith to illustrate imposture, for Raikes "represented to you one who was rehearsing a part he wished to act before the world, and was not aware he took the world into his confidence." His position as tutor to an invalid young lady was secured for him by his old school friend, Evan Harrington, who knew Raikes's poverty; but when Raikes had presented himself at their old school and asked for a position as usher, the principal had said, "You an usher, a rearer of youth, Mr. Raikes? Oh, no! Oh, no!" That the principal was astute is soon evident to the reader. Raikes is almost a caricature, a Dickens-like creation.

Another minor character in this book, Aunt Bel, "a sprightly maid fifty years old, without a wrinkle to show for it—the Aunt Bel of fifty houses where there were young women and little boys," guesses correctly that one in the circle conjecturing the cause of her remaining unmarried, chose Latin as the reason. "A young man would not marry a woman with Latin, but would not guess it the impediment." This leads to a conversation illustrating Meredith's ideas on female education:

A divergence to other themes ensued, and then Miss Jenny Graine said "Isn't Juley learning Latin? I should like to join her while I'm here."

"And so should I," responded Rose. "My friend Evan is teaching her during the intervals of his arduous diplomatic labours. Will you take us into your class, Evan?"

"Don't be silly, girls," interposed Aunt Bel. "Do you want to graduate for my state with your eyes open?"

Regarding this young Evan the reader is put into a frame of mind to find the poor young fellow infinitely touching in his despair, though his trouble is only about the choice of a profession—he knows that it is right for him to continue his father's business of tailoring, but the work seems odious to the young man:

Evan had just been accusing the heavens of conspiracy to disgrace him. Those patient heavens had listened, as is their wont. They had viewed and had not been disordered by his mental frenzies. It is certainly hard that they do not mean to come down to us, and condescend to tell us what they mean, and be dumbfounded by the perspicuity of our arguments—the argument, for instance, that they have not fashioned us for the science of the shears, and do yet impel us to wield them.

He is not just at this moment a very heroic young man, but he touches the heart, this adolescent. A natural and engaging trait, soon no longer possible and perhaps happily so, is Evan's ignorance of the unfortunate plight of the young woman that he has saved from suicide; the waggoner intimates and at last is forced to indicate plainly that

the complaint the young woman laboured under was one common to the daughters of Eve. . . . "Why couldn't you tell that?" said the waggoner, as Evan, tingling at the ears, remained silent. "I know nothing of such things," he answered hastily, like one hurt. I have to repeat the statement, that he was a youth, and a modest one. He felt unaccountably, unreasonably, but horribly, ashamed. The thought of his actual position swamped the sickening disgust at tailordom. Worse, then, might happen to us in this extraordinary world!

The delicacy of this treatment of Evan's innocence is a mark of respect to him.

*Beauchamp's Career*, written directly after an election in which Meredith took great interest on account of the candidacy of an intimate friend, resembles *The Ordeal of Richard Feveril* in being the study of a youth's development. And this youth is one "born with so extreme and passionate a love for his country, that he thought all things else of mean importance in comparison." When he is less than fourteen he had this reason for preferring to be a parson rather than a naval officer: "In one particular, parsons are envi-

able—they have time to read history and decide which party was right in our civil war.” Here is a suggestion to us; history is a favorite study with boys; let us direct them, if they show no natural inclination, toward deciding “which party was right,” for a true opinion will be useful in all professions. Dr. Shrapnel, who talks like Carlyle, is Beauchamp’s teacher and friend; like the Herr Doctor in *Harry Richmond*, he makes notable remarks, suited to Meredith’s rating of this office. Dr. Shrapnel is a Radical and free-thinker. His ideas are Meredith’s personal opinions. Dr. Shrapnel’s relations with Nevil Beauchamp are represented as being more intimate than Beauchamp’s relations with his own kin. Crossjay Patterne in *The Egoist* admired Vernon Whitford, his teacher, more than any other person; pedagogists have noted the tendency of adolescents to admire chosen heroes outside their family; as Meredith presents the case, this relationship is not so much natural as desirable. Dr. Shrapnel’s grief during the crisis of Beauchamp’s illness is profoundly personal, almost parental. The mentor and master feels toward his disciple, molded by him, as toward a child.

Meredith believed in coeducation. His ideas on the education of girls appear in several different novels but are not worked out in such detail as are his ideas on the education of boys. His ideas about the education of girls are related in general to his belief that women must be recognized as possessing brains.

Harmony of the sexes, cosmopolitanism, individualism, sanity, these are in Meredith’s opinion some aims of education. I believe that anyone will be rewarded if for the first time, or with fresh courage, he undertakes to make a study of Meredith’s novels, for the purpose of becoming familiar with important social ideas.

## THE SOCIETY OF COLLEGE TEACHERS OF EDUCATION PROGRAM

The College Teachers of Education will meet with the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association in Philadelphia on Monday and Tuesday, February 24 and 25. There will be three sessions.

### FIRST SESSION, 10 A.M., MONDAY, FEBRUARY 24

1. "Some Psychological Characteristics of the Intermediate Grades of the Elementary School." CHARLES H. JUDD, University of Chicago.
2. "A Study of Association in Children in Relation to the Learning Ability." ELMER E. JONES, University of Indiana.
3. "Abilities of High-School Students": (a) "The Ability of Students Who Elect the Different Courses Offered"; (b) "The Relation of Failures in Mathematics to Elimination"; (c) "The Correlation of High-School Marks." G. D. STRAYER, Columbia University.

### SECOND SESSION, 3 P.M., MONDAY, FEBRUARY 24

1. "Incidental Instruction (especially in German, Geometry, and the 'three R's')." J. L. MERIAM, University of Missouri.
2. "An Experiment with the Courtis Arithmetic Tests." E. E. RALL, University of Tennessee.
3. "A New Method in the History of Education." H. H. HORNE, New York University.

### THIRD SESSION, 2:30 P.M., TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 25

Complete arrangements for this session have not been made, but there will be no formal papers presented. The business matters of the society will come up at this session.

Members will be notified of the place of the meetings later. The *Yearbook* will be out about February 5.

## CONSTITUTION

### PREAMBLE

In order to promote the teaching of education in the colleges and universities of the country, we, the undersigned, do hereby adopt the following

## CONSTITUTION

### ARTICLE I. NAME

This association shall be styled The Society of College Teachers of Education.

### ARTICLE II. PURPOSE

It shall be the general purpose of this society to improve the work of the departments of education in the colleges and universities of the country. To this end it shall (1) Ascertain in as great detail as possible what is actually being done from time to time in the various colleges and universities, and this information shall be disseminated among its members in the most effective manner. (2) It shall encourage wise experimentation in developing new courses in education in colleges and universities. (3) It shall, through committees or otherwise, attempt to determine the relative value for college and university students, both graduate and undergraduate, of different courses in education. (4) It shall study the relationship of the department of education to other departments in colleges and universities, to the end that this relationship may be most harmonious and helpful. (5) It shall discuss current educational theory so far as this is germane to the work of the members of the association.

### ARTICLE III. MEMBERSHIP

Section 1. All teachers of educational subjects in bona fide colleges and universities shall be eligible to membership in this society.

Section 2. All those persons who were in attendance upon the first meeting in Chicago, and who shall sign this constitution and pay the membership fee, shall be regarded as charter members. All other members shall be elected by the executive committee.

Section 3. Members shall be elected by the executive committee, and shall pay a membership fee of two dollars. Other funds necessary for the maintenance of the society shall be raised by assessments levied on the members of the society. (Amendment of February 25, 1903.)

### ARTICLE IV. OFFICERS

Section 1. The affairs of the society shall be placed in the hands of an executive committee of five members, the officers of which shall be a chairman and a secretary. The chairman shall preside at the meetings of the society, and the secretary shall assume all the duties usually devolving upon such an officer. In addition, he shall take charge of the funds of the association and expend them under the direction of the executive committee. The chairman and the secretary shall be elected annually by the members of the society.

Section 2. One member of the executive committee shall be elected each year by the members of the society, and shall hold office for five years. The present executive committee shall determine by lot the terms of office of its members, arranging it so that one member shall serve for five years, one for four years, one for three years, one for two years, and one for one year.

#### ARTICLE V. MEETINGS

There shall be one meeting of the society each year, to be held at the same time and place as the meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association until otherwise determined by vote of the society. The executive committee shall have charge of all details in arranging for each meeting.

#### ARTICLE VI. AMENDMENTS

Amendments may be made to this constitution by a two-thirds vote of the members of the society at a meeting subsequent to that at which the amendment has been proposed in writing.

#### EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE, 1912-13

PROFESSOR GEORGE F. JAMES . . . . .	<i>President</i>
University of Minnesota	
PROFESSOR CARTER ALEXANDER . . . . .	<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i>
University of Missouri	
PROFESSOR PAUL MONROE	PROFESSOR F. E. BOLTON
Columbia University	Washington State University
PROFESSOR PAUL H. HANUS	
Harvard University	

#### MEMBERSHIP LIST, JANUARY 10, 1913

ALEXANDER, CARTER	
Assistant Professor of Educational Administration, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.	
ANDERSON, LEWIS F.	
Assistant Professor of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.	
ATHEARN, W. S.	
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## DISCUSSION

### ENGLISH LITERATURE AND THE COLLEGE FRESHMAN—A REPLY

The article by Miss H. S. Hughes entitled "English Literature and the College Freshman," which appeared in the November *School Review*, should cause teachers of English both in the preparatory school and in the college to pause and reflect. The situation as depicted here is indeed deplorable. If the secondary school is turning out pupils after four years' training so utterly lacking in the knowledge of the ABC's of English literary history, so helpless in essentials of general culture, as is here represented, then, as the author of the article suggests, there must be something fundamentally wrong in the high-school method and curriculum; therefore, the college under present conditions can hope to accomplish little for the Freshman toward training for advanced work in English.

The author concludes, on the basis of her very interesting tables and charts, first, that the high school is failing to accomplish certain things expected of it; secondly, that certain things legitimately left untouched by the high school rarely come to the student from outside; thirdly, that too little emphasis is laid on the matter of historical relations by such a study of the background of a piece of literature as should add to the vividness of the student's interest in and appreciation of the book as a whole; finally, that there is a widespread tendency on the part of the high school to neglect the study of lyric poetry. Let us examine these charges in detail.

First, what are these "certain things" which the high school is expected to accomplish? Evidently they involve not only a knowledge of the text itself, but also some of the biographical and historical data connected with it. Theoretically the high school ought to accomplish this much, practically it cannot. The primary aim of the high school (I speak of conditions in the high school particularly, because it is from this class of secondary school that the large majority of college Freshmen come) is to give the student a knowledge and appreciation of a prescribed set of books. Means to this end concern themselves naturally with biographical and historical facts. No teacher, for example, would attempt to present the "De Coverley Papers" to a class without some

account of Addison and Steele as men, and without some effort to revive the social, political, and literary life of the first half of the eighteenth century. But even so, how much of such background as can be given in the short time devoted to this text, is going to stick? If the pupil, after a year or two, remembers anything about the book it is likely to be content, story. An exercise calling for outside knowledge of books, that is, knowledge dealing with dates and authors, is perhaps not as fair a test of what the high school is expected to accomplish for the student in English literature as would be an exercise involving a knowledge of content.

Again, that certain things legitimately left untouched by the high school rarely come to the student from any other source is true but not surprising. Of the high-school students that take the college preparatory course, by no means all have a taste for literature. They represent a wide range of interests: science, arts, languages, mathematics, not English alone. Even when the school succeeds in stimulating in a child of other tastes a liking for literature, the new interest is often checked by conditions outside the school. Such a child may come from a non-reading, even illiterate family, wholly unsympathetic to the influence of books. "You know we have no books at home," was the pathetic answer once made me by a high-school girl to whom I had recommended some outside reading. The high school gives to many children all they ever get of literature. This class of children and that represented by the child of scientific tastes inevitably keep the high school from doing what it might in its English work if it dealt only with children of literary taste, coming from families with background. Thus when students of varied origins and varied interests are brought together in a required course in English and requested unexpectedly to answer a set of questions on books, dates, and authors, a result such as Miss Hughes describes, while depressing, is not unaccountable.

Thirdly, Miss Hughes declares that there is a widespread tendency on the part of the high school to neglect the study of lyric poetry. For this condition she seeks a partial explanation in the fact that lyric poetry requires more delicate handling by the teacher than does narrative poetry, and that narrative poetry is more attractive to boys and to girls of non-literary taste. I believe this explanation to be correct. But Miss Hughes goes on to say: "If properly taught, the lyric, with its personal note and idealistic beauty, should make an appeal to the adolescent mind; and such poetry should have a desirable influence in refining and in defining the ideas and sentiments of that period

of storm and stress." Here I must disagree. I believe that with a few exceptions lyric poetry, as represented by Keats, Shelley, Wordsworth, Byron, Browning, Arnold, has little place in the high school. However well taught, it is only to the rare soul in the period of adolescence that such poetry appeals. The average high-school pupil is but a child in mental, moral, and emotional development. And even where there is such maturity, it is far better to give good, sane, objective poetry than the lyric with its personal note, which may turn a girl's thoughts in upon herself and thus feed an unwholesome, introspective mood. If, therefore, the high school is neglecting lyric poetry of a personal note I think it is acting wisely.

And yet, after all that can be said in defense of the high school in this matter of preparatory English, we must admit that Miss Hughes's statistics are discouraging. But such an admission leads us to ask the question whether the author's results are fairly representative of the secondary schools of the country. Can it be stated with confidence on the basis of a single test that the secondary schools of the country fail to measure up to what is expected of them in equipping their students for college English?

Eager to discover whether the same test, applied to another set of Freshmen, would meet with any appreciable difference in result, I applied Miss Hughes's test to fifty of my college Freshmen, who represent all sections of the country and who came to me with only such knowledge of literature as they had received at school and at home. My results, compared with those of Miss Hughes, are tabulated below. Groups marked *A* are hers; those marked *B* are mine.

Although in Groups *Ia* and *II* a few of my percentages are lower and a few are the same, in the majority of cases they are considerably higher, and in group *Ib* they are higher in every case. Though there was not a single perfect paper in the set, and though some of the answers were amusingly wide of the mark, such as the ascribing of *Beowulf*, *The Faery Queen*, *The Shepherd's Calendar*, and *The Ancient Mariner* to Chaucer, and *King Lear* to Tennyson, there were more answers that were astonishing in their range and intelligence. For example: Ben Jonson, *The Alchemist*, *The Noble Nature*; Pope, *The Dunciad*, *The Essay on Criticism*; Johnson, *Rasselas*, *The Lives of the Poets*, *The Rambler*, *Irene*; Arnold, *Culture and Anarchy*, *Sweetness and Light*; Fielding, *Amelia*; Dryden, *Abasalom and Achitophel*, *Astrea Redux*. Considerable variety was evident in the naming of a work of the author: there were 9 plays of Shakspeare's given, 6 novels of George Eliot's; 12, of Dickens'; 4, of

Thackeray's. There were given 9 poems by Wordsworth, including *The Excursion*, *Westminster Bridge*, and *Tintern Abbey*; 6, by Keats; 6, by Browning; and 9, by Tennyson, including *The Palace of Art* and *Maud*. This range of knowledge, while surprising and gratifying, is not

	A	B	A	B
Ia. Single Work of Author			Ib Author's	Half-Century
Shakspeare .....	100%*	100%	14%	62%
Milton .....	100	100	6	48
G. Eliot .....	92	98	16	20
Dickens .....	90	100	12	42
Chaucer .....	86	78	14	32
Thackeray .....	82	76	6	20
Tennyson .....	80	98	18	36
Scott .....	80	98	10	18
Spenser .....	68	86	0	16
Wordsworth .....	58	60	14	40
Pope .....	56	62	0	12
Coleridge .....	44	92	10	36
Byron .....	40	50	4	32
J. Austen .....	36	50	6	12
Arnold .....	14	44	4	36
S. Johnson .....	14	64	4	14
Browning .....	10	26	14	34
Keats .....	10	20	4	28
B. Jonson .....	4	40	8	14
Fielding .....	4	2	2	4
Rossetti .....	4	14	0	12
Dryden .....	4	20	0	8
II. Author of the work				
Canterbury Tales .....			94	94
Faery Queen .....			90	90
King Lear .....			88	96
In Memoriam .....			84	68
Mill on the Floss .....			80	96
Idylls of the King .....			78	100
Lycidas .....			66	100
Rape of the Lock .....			64	88
Ode on Immortality .....			60	60
Childe Harold .....			52	54
Prisoner of Chillon .....			44	36
Essay on Man .....			42	52
Pendennis .....			40	30
Sohrab and Rustum .....			40	48
Rabbi Ben Ezra .....			14	12
Christabel .....			10	38
Blessed Damsel .....			10	22
Ode to the West Wind .....			10	26
My Last Duchess .....			10	14
Alexander's Feast .....			6	52
Eve of St. Agnes .....			6	24
Grecian Urn .....			6	32
Adonais .....			2	16
Tintern Abbey .....			0	12

\* I have used percentages instead of charts, for they seem clearer for purposes of comparison.

so phenomenal as it at first appears, for it may indicate not so much an acquaintance with these works themselves, as assiduous perusal of Pancoast, Halleck, Moody and Lovett, or other familiar guides to English literary history, assisted by a retentive memory.

That the same test applied to two different groups of Freshmen should give this variation in results may be accounted for largely on the basis of college entrance standards. A college draws the majority of its students from its own locality; hence, whatever the entrance standards of a given college may be, the curriculum of the preparatory schools in that vicinity will inevitably be affected by those standards. In the first instance, this test was applied to a Freshman class in a woman's college in the Middle West; in the second instance, to a woman's college in the East. Whether the results are in each case fairly representative of conditions in these respective sections of the country I should not feel justified in stating on the basis of a single trial. But without further investigation, if one recalls the number of women's colleges of first rank distributed along the coast from Maryland to Massachusetts, and reflects upon their certain influence on the preparatory schools, both public and private, from which they draw the greater number of their students; and moreover when one remembers that many of these private schools, especially in the South, still count literature among the "accomplishments" and devote to it special attention, one must admit that the opportunity for variation in the results of such a test as this is indisputable. Thus the two applications of this test as here recorded may not be an unfair indication of the proportionate difference between the standards of the preparatory schools in the Middle West and in the East. Consequently, the second application of the test would suggest that what may be true of conditions in preparatory schools in one section of the country may not be true of all sections, and that such a test would need to be made in all representative localities before it could be said to show with any degree of accuracy the standard of college Freshmen generally in the essentials of English literature.

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## EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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### THE CHICAGO UNIVERSITY DINNER AT THE MEETING OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

In connection with the meeting of the Department of Superintendence in Philadelphia during the last week in February there will be a dinner of the former students and graduates of the University of Chicago. Placards will be posted announcing the exact time and place of this dinner. The dinner will occur on Wednesday evening. It will be the third annual event of this type. The dinner originated in imitation of the example of Teachers College, which has for a number of years had a reunion of its former students and graduates at this time. The dinner of Teachers College is held on Tuesdays so that no conflict is possible between the two gatherings. All who read this notice are requested to spread the information so that the attendance at these dinners may be as large as possible.

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### CONTROL OF THE GERMAN INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS

The current number of the *Elementary School Teacher* contains an article by F. W. Roman on the control of German industrial schools. So much hinges on the correct understanding and interpretation of the German example in this matter that it is important that the largest possible amount of information be had with regard to the success or unsuccess of the system of education which is in operation in Germany. Professor Roman has shown clearly that the Prussian system of the separate industrial schools is by no means the most successful or even the typical form of organization in Germany. It is not appropriate to reprint in this *Review* any large part of the article. One passage, however, may very properly be repeated. This significant paragraph is prefaced by the statement that in several of the German states, especially Baden and Württemberg, the school system is not divided as it is in Prussia, but the two kinds of schools, namely, the common school and the industrial school, are under the same control. "So far as whole states come into consideration, Württemberg and Baden lead. They were the first to develop such schools, and are still leading in efficiency of organization, number of boys and girls in attendance per

capita population, and also in amount of money spent. It seemed to me, the Germans were quite unanimous in this conclusion. This again is due in no small degree to a united action for which the school organization provides." Mr. Roman's whole argument is so significant that it is to be hoped that all who are interested in the problems of the organization of industrial education will refer to the original paper and discover from his statement how little comfort there is in German experience for those who favor a divided school system.

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#### THE CONSOLIDATION OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR HIGHER EDUCATION

Attention has already been called in the *Review* to the moves which have been made in Iowa and Vermont in the direction of consolidation of the higher institutions of learning. A similar project is under discussion in the state of Montana.

On December 23, there met in Helena between forty and fifty prominent citizens of Montana who organized an "Association for the Creation of a Greater University of Montana." They went before the state board of education with arguments for the consolidation of the State University, the Agricultural College, Normal School, and School of Mines. After hearing the arguments in favor of consolidation of these institutions, the state board unanimously adopted a resolution recommending to the legislature that the consolidation be carried out.

This association has in view a somewhat wider project than the mere consolidation of the state institutions mentioned. It wishes to bring about within the state the development of a better school system which shall be more efficient and economical. From the statement of its purposes the following extracts may be quoted:

It is the purpose of this Association to consolidate the four higher educational institutions in order to prevent inefficiency and waste. . . . To work for the creation of an expanded system of polytechnic high schools, which are at the present time so much needed. . . . To impress upon the attention of philanthropic persons the desirability of aiding in the development of the University of Montana through the provision of buildings and endowments. To arouse public sentiment in favor of education, and to arouse the enthusiasm of the people to the unsurpassed educational possibilities of the great commonwealth of Montana.

There can be no doubt at all that the movement which has been set on foot in Montana is in keeping with the best interests of the state and the higher education of that section of the country. As has been

pointed out in the discussions of similar undertakings in other states, the whole problem of readjustment raised by this and similar movements is a very urgent one, and its solution calls for educational statesmanship of the highest order.

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#### HIGH-SCHOOL FRATERNITIES

The problem of eliminating high-school fraternities has been attacked in various ways in different parts of the country. The state of Indiana passed a state law prohibiting fraternities in high schools. It is the testimony of many who have tried to administer this state law that it is quite impossible to bring within the definition of the statute many of the organizations which are in reality fraternities.

In the city of Chicago there has been for some time a ruling of the Board of Education against these organizations. It is well known that they exist in the high schools, but the administrative machinery for their elimination is very difficult to set up. On one or two occasions principals have attempted to exclude students because of membership in these organizations, and they have found it very difficult to carry out that program. The Board of Education adopted a very drastic pledge during the last year to which the names of students must be attached, but these pledges were not administered in some of the schools, and many of the students and parents regard the pledges as negligible in actual practice. During the last few weeks a most vigorous effort has been made by the Board to eliminate these organizations.

The Board of Education of the city of New York recently passed a rule against high-school fraternities. The experience of that city will undoubtedly be the experience of the Indiana state system and of the city of Chicago.

In the meantime, a hopeful movement has been started by one of the college fraternities. Phi Delta Theta Fraternity, which has approximately 18,000 members, at its recent national convention adopted, on the third of January, 1913, the following resolution: "*Be it resolved*, That no person shall be eligible to initiation to membership in this fraternity who shall have been a member of any general or class secret society in any public preparatory or high school. Provided that any person who, prior to the adoption hereof has joined such a society, shall be eligible to membership upon his resignation for all time from such society, proper evidence of good faith being presented, and upon permission of the General Council and of the Province President. Such

permission shall not be granted if such a society existed contrary to the law or to the regulations of the institution wherein it existed."

This resolution was carried subject to the approval of the National Interfraternity Council.

This action of the Phi Delta Theta Fraternity is, on the whole, the most promising of the various moves which have been made to deal with this matter. Most of the high-school societies have originated through the activity of some enthusiastic high-school alumnus who has later become affiliated in his college course with a college fraternity. It is the very general belief of high-school officers that the organization of these fraternities in the lower schools is a mistake, and that the enthusiasts who have brought these fraternities into being have not seen the difference between high-school conditions and college conditions. The fact that a large college fraternity should recognize the distinction in such a definite enactment is likely to impress high-school students more than the relatively futile appeals of high-school officials.

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#### CONGRESS ON SCHOOL HYGIENE

The United States will be the meeting-place of the Fourth International Congress on School Hygiene. The preceding congresses have all been held abroad, the first at Nuremberg, 1904, the second at London, 1907, and the third at Paris, 1910. The 1913 congress will be held at Buffalo, N.Y., August 25-30.

It is the object of the congress to bring together men and women interested in the health of school children and to assemble a scientific exhibit representative of the most notable achievements in school hygiene. It is believed that the present widespread public interest in health education will make the exhibit a particularly attractive feature of the congress.

Twenty-five nations have membership on the permanent international committee of the congress and it is expected that all will have delegates at Buffalo. The Secretary of State has officially invited foreign governments to participate. Invitations have also been issued to the various state and municipal authorities, and to educational, scientific, medical, and hygienic institutions and organizations.

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#### EFFECTS OF THE NEW HARVARD ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

When the new entrance requirements were adopted at Harvard University two years ago, it was frankly stated that the intention of

the authorities in adopting these new regulations was to bring to the university students who had been prepared in the high schools, particularly in high schools remote from Boston. The grave danger in the earlier entrance system was that of limiting admissions to a group of private schools in New England. The effect of the new entrance requirements has been that which was anticipated when the legislation was adopted. The geographical distribution of students entering by the two methods is indicated by the report that 86.1 per cent of students who entered under the old plan came from New England while only 51.3 per cent of those who entered under the new plan last year came from New England. Of the 154 admitted last year under the new plan 124 came from public schools.

It is interesting to note in connection with these statistics that the old plan is still regarded as the simpler plan by a large number of students. These are especially the students who come from private preparatory schools where the old plan has long been familiar. The certainty with which the old scheme can be administered and the certainty with which students can be coached to pass the well-known type of examinations evidently play some part in determining the choice of the majority of students.

That Harvard will be able through this changed method of admissions to attract very many students from the public high schools is rendered doubtful by the fact that in New England and in all of the rest of the United States plans of admission of students through certificates are becoming more and more firmly established. The growth of well-equipped universities in the Middle West makes it less and less necessary for students to go to the East for their education. The lack of uniformity of plans of admission strengthens the growing tendency for the students to remain at the institutions nearer their homes, especially if they can enter these institutions without the hazards of examinations.

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#### LATIN AND GERMAN UTILIZED IN SCHOOL PUBLICATIONS

A publication from Crawfordsville, Ind., presents on one side of the sheet the doings of the high school in Ciceronian Latin; on the other side of the sheet are brief German notes of a similar type. This publication is issued by the students of the high school. To be sure, the critic might find some minor defects in the use which has been made of these two languages. The title on the German side of this publication is "Deutsches Echo der Hochschule." Technically speaking, the

Germans use the last word only when referring to their universities and higher technical schools, but the loss that would come from emphasizing this point is greater than the gain that would come from a strict adherence to German terminology, if indeed that were at all possible. A few extracts from the Latin side of the publication may show the versatility of the editors.

*Scientia Domestica.*—Scientia Domestica per hunc annum fuit acceptissima. Hoc studium vero fuit magno usui mihi. In sex primis dictatis rudimenta fructus conservandi et coaguli faciendi cognovimus. . . .

*Pueri Societatis Athletica Multitudinem Vehementer Convocaverunt.*—Omnes pueri societatis athleticae ad deligendos duces anno postero convenerunt. "Preston Rudy" multo et divino impetu imperator est delectus, et "Fredericus Hunt" etiam proximus imperio est delectus. Magistratus librari et aerari praefecti constituti sunt et "Delbertus Clements" ad hos habendos est delectus. . . .

Conflagratio calamitosissima multis mensibus in "Indianapolis" fuit incendium aedifici magni "C. O. Langen" centum septuaginta quinque milibus thaleris amissis.—H. W.

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#### CO-OPERATION BETWEEN SCHOOL AND LIBRARY

A pamphlet has recently been published by the library at Grand Rapids, Mich., entitled *The Library and the School*. This pamphlet opens with the statement that the relation between the Grand Rapids public library and the public schools of the city is unusually close. A description is then given of the evolution of the organization which brought about this intimate relation between the two public institutions. Branch school libraries and traveling libraries are described. These modes of bringing books to the children are, however, sufficiently well known, so they need perhaps no special discussion here. One paragraph in the pamphlet attracts attention as indicating a very useful type of instruction which is not common in American schools and libraries. "Systematic instruction of school children in the use of the library is one of the regular features of the work with schools." Most of this instruction is given in the children's department of the central library building but some is carried on in the schools, particularly in the high school. Teachers bring a whole class to the library. The class is given some idea of the methods of classification, use of catalogues, etc. More than five thousand children received such instruction last year.

It is certainly important that relations of this type should be

developed. The question as to the proper source of initiative of such combinations will have to be settled in various communities in terms of the special conditions. If superintendents would secure the report from Grand Rapids they might be able to bring about the relations through the action of the Board of Education. Conversely, if the attention of librarians could be more generally drawn to the advantage of such relations they would undoubtedly seek to secure the opportunity which the Grand Rapids library has cultivated so fully.

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#### THE PLAYGROUNDS AND RECREATION CENTERS

The secretary of the Playground and Recreation Association of America recently issued from the address of the association, No. 1 Madison Avenue, New York City, a report of the year's developments in the playground movement. A general summary of the year's progress is given on the opening pages of this report.

Forty cities report that supervised playgrounds were opened for the first time during the past year. Forty-eight cities report that they are using their schoolhouses as recreation centers. The University of California had more than 1,000 students in its summer playground course last year. During the year, the number of cities having associations increased from twenty-four to thirty-seven. Reports have been received from 257 of the cities maintaining playgrounds. In 19 cities there is an investment for recreation purposes of \$4,445,500. During the year \$2,750,000 were expended for the administration of playgrounds. Twenty-five cities in twelve different states received donated playgrounds during the year. The pamphlet gives further information about the development of this type of work.

There can be no doubt that the organization of these playgrounds is a matter of vital concern to the school officers. In the first place, it is desirable that the school officers should, so far as possible, initiate the movement so as to gain for the schools those advantages that come from proper location and proper management of the playgrounds. Co-operation between the playground managers and school officers is always possible, but where the two organizations can be organically related this co-operation is more certain than it can be where the two organizations are separate.

The following concrete example shows how the matter may be wisely managed. The Board of Education of the city of Boise, Idaho, recognizing the importance of the playground movement, first established

a small playground in the center of the city. It then extended the scope of its activities far enough to purchase on the edge of the city a plot of forty acres, which it is developing into a play-park for the schools and the city in general. These forty acres were purchased for \$16,000. They are easily accessible on the trolley lines, and they lie near the river, so that the possibilities of developing all sorts of play activities are almost unlimited. A large football field has been laid out. In order that this may be brought into perfect condition, it is to be cultivated for a number of years by the classes of agriculture in the schools. Another plot has been laid out for baseball and other purposes requiring a large, level field. Between the two fields is a grove of trees which will be taken care of by the class in forestry. A lagoon which will be connected with the river will be opened up between the two fields, and will furnish skating and other forms of amusement.

The educational possibilities which are supplied by this undertaking have been intimated in the foregoing paragraph. The co-operation between the communities and schools is attested by the fact that the citizens are willing to support this plan originated by the Board of Education, and in addition the park promises to be a constant means of cultivating a wholesome relationship between the citizens and the schools. Certainly there is no agency in any municipality which ought to be more active in promoting the organization of playgrounds than the school board.

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#### A VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE BUREAU

The Chicago Association of Commerce, in seeking for some field not now occupied by other associations, has discovered the importance in the city of Chicago of developing a vocational bureau. This is not an employment bureau but is an agency for investigation and advice and deals so far as possible with children who are actually in school in the hope of improving their training for a later vocation. The new bureau has the co-operation of the Board of Education and of the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, which up to this time has been the most active agency in the city of Chicago in dealing with this problem. A secretary has been employed for this new bureau whose business it will be to gather information through the school records and through the advice of the School of Civics and Philanthropy in any given case. Each child's school record, environment, and home condition will be investigated and the first business of the secretary will be if possible to keep the child in contact with school opportunities

as long as possible. The secretary and the members of the committee who are back of this movement will also develop the avenues of contact with employers so that there may be the freest exchange of information between the children who are seeking positions and the employers who are seeking competent employees. As indicated in this statement, the exact direction in which the work will develop remains to be determined by the experience of the secretary and the committee. Undoubtedly it will develop ultimately into an organic part of the school system, thus supplying a need which is universally felt but for which no provision is at present made in the public-school system.

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#### AN ENGLISH SCHOOL FOR PRINTERS

The student of English schools finds in the educational development which is going on in the large manufacturing cities of England a most stimulating example of the success of a compact community in building up a complete school system. These municipalities have broken away from the traditions of the old English education and have established the most intimate relations between higher institutions, lower schools, and all branches of technical and general education. The municipal universities, so called, are among the most comprehensive institutions of higher learning. They include medical schools and technical courses of various sorts, as well as the traditional university courses. American students whose attention has been drawn to the German example of industrial education will find in the technical courses in the English municipal systems equally good examples for American consideration and possible imitation. The following account of a technical course in Leeds, England, indicates in a concrete way the character of some of these courses: At the Technical School in Leeds a department of printing has been equipped. Evening courses were opened last year and more than one hundred and fifty apprentices and journeymen attended these classes. This work is being extended and now includes courses in typography, process work, lithography, linotype operating, drawing and design, mechanics for printers, and printing-machine mechanism. This group of courses makes it possible in connection with the work which is done in photography in the same school to develop not only the regular press work but also related forms of artistic printing and reproduction of drawings.

Printing has been recognized by all those who have introduced it into school work as very available material for elementary-school and

high-school instruction. It can be utilized as a part of the regular course and furnishes, as indicated in this example, an opportunity to bring in a type of technical trade work which may be closely related to general school work.

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#### TEXTBOOKS

The importance of providing good schoolbooks at the lowest possible rate keeps the general subject of textbooks constantly before the public. A few of the month's items on this topic may be quoted to show the problems which arise in this matter and the variety of methods of dealing with these problems in different parts of the country. From Phoenix, N.Y., comes the statement that the Board of Education has decided to purchase all textbooks used in the schools and sell them to the pupils at exact cost. From Pocahontas, Ark., comes the statement that the Randolph County Textbook Board has been organized for the purpose of selecting a series of textbooks for the common schools in that county for the next six years. In Portland, Ore., the Grade Teachers' Association is reported as urging that one of its members be placed on the textbook commission which will be appointed next year. The commission is appointed every six years and the grade teachers are of the opinion that, since they constitute the largest teaching force of every community, they should have some word in choosing the books from which they will teach the children of the state. From Dayton, Ohio, comes the statement that the Western Ohio Superintendents' Round Table "opposed vehemently" the adoption of uniform textbooks. A resolution was adopted at its recent meeting placing the Round Table on record as absolutely opposed to such uniformity. In California the constitutional amendment was adopted providing for free textbooks for the children in the elementary schools, but the machinery for providing and distributing these books cannot be perfected before next fall at the earliest. Legislative enactments are necessary in order to provide the books required by the amendment. From Joplin, Mo., comes the report that the Board of Education has passed resolutions, the first of which is as follows: "WHEREAS, The present textbook law is generally unsatisfactory in this state, and each textbook company doing business in the state tends by its persistent activities to disturb the official administration of the schools by clamoring for textbook changes; therefore, *be it resolved*, That this board goes on record as favoring a change in our textbook law whereby we may have uniform

textbooks in the state, such textbooks to be selected by a non-partisan state commission." In Kansas, a controversy of long standing is being continued in the city of Topeka, where local agitators are clamoring as vigorously as they can that the city system is violating the laws of the state by using Dunn's *Community and Citizen* in place of the regular adopted textbook of the state. At its meeting in Washington, D.C., the Junior Order of United American Mechanics decided that a nation-wide campaign should be waged in favor of free textbooks.

Other examples of local interest in the questions of uniformity and free supply of textbooks might be cited. The issue is one which evidently arouses strong partisan views, both with regard to the desirability of uniformity, and with regard to the duty of the public to supply these books free of cost to individual children. Teachers find the whole question so much involved in local political issues that it is difficult to get any abstract consideration of the educational merits of the one or the other method of procedure.

## BOOK REVIEWS

*Mental Fatigue.* By MAX OFFNER. Translated from the German by GUY MONTROSE WHIPPLE. Baltimore: Warrick & York, 1911.

Professor Whipple has performed a genuine service in translating Dr. Offner's monograph into English. Bringing together a large amount of scattered material, this book presents the most important facts in regard to the nature, determination, and significance of mental fatigue, particularly in its relation to the work of the school. The translator, in order to increase the usefulness of the book to American readers, has added at the suggestion of the author to the extensive bibliography appended to the German edition a list of books and articles appearing in English, numbering in all forty-four titles and covering a wide range of topics. A second appendix gives a brief explanation of the German school system. Dr. Whipple has also inserted in several places footnotes "that are especially intended to assist those who desire it to gain information concerning the several methods of testing fatigue, or to undertake for themselves experimental investigations in the schoolroom or the laboratory." The author in preparing the book for translation has made a few changes by way of addition to the original text, but in all essentials the translation is identical with the German edition.

The monograph first considers the general nature of fatigue and the symptoms that indicate its presence; then there follows an extended discussion of the various methods that have been used to measure mental fatigue. The physiological tests are first taken up and the conclusion is reached that they are too unreliable to be used as exact measurements. In discussing the psychological tests the author gives a relatively large amount of space to the aesthesiometer-compass test of Griesbach and to the criticisms that have been urged against it. This is followed by a discussion of the so-called kinematometer test, the test of time estimates and the algesiometer test. Next are taken up those tests that concern the duration of mental processes and various test-problems, including computing, counting letters, dictation, memory tests, the completion test, cancellation, and copying, and a combination test that brings together some of the most important elements in the preceding tests. The author concludes that the psychological tests, despite many defects and difficulties, furnish serviceable average values and afford reliable information as to the effect and degree of fatigue. The discussion of the various tests for fatigue ends with a consideration of the method of continuous work as a means of determining fatigue.

The remainder of the monograph is chiefly given over to a presentation of the laws of fatigue. Under this topic are taken up the relation of fatigue

to age, to the length of lesson periods and their number, to the days of the week, to pauses in the school work, to changes in the work, to social activities, to gymnastics, to various school studies, to afternoon instruction, to the school program, to the teacher, to the method of teaching, and to individual and class instruction. This section is particularly valuable to the teacher and contains many useful facts and suggestions.

In conclusion it should be said that the monograph does not aim to be a final statement of the questions raised, and the conclusions are tentative. "One of the objects of the translator is, accordingly, to stimulate others to contribute to this scientifically interesting and practically important aspect of experimental pedagogy." Dr. Whipple's translation should, therefore, prove of value not only to the practical school man, but to the investigator of educational problems as well.

S. S. COLVIN

BROWN UNIVERSITY

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*Elements of Geography.* By ROLLIN D. SALISBURY, HARLAN H. BARROWS and WALTER S. TOWER. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1912. Pp. 616.

The *Elements of Geography* is the second book to appear in response to the demand that geography should teach the relationship of life, especially human, to the natural environment. "The authors have sought to give the student (1) an understanding of the elements of geography, (2) an interest in the subject, and especially (3) training in clear thinking." The authors believe "that the chief object in geography teaching should be preparation for citizenship," an ideal which every true teacher of the science will endeavor to sustain. The first chapter deals with the "Nature of Geography" and serves as an introduction. "Earth Relations," "Relief Features," "Nature and Functions of the Atmosphere" are treated in three chapters, and the elements of climate and weather in the following four chapters. Three chapters are devoted to the climates of the tropical, intermediate, and polar zones, followed by four chapters on the "Oceans," "Materials of the Land and Their Uses," "Changes of the Earth's Surface Due to Internal Forces," and "Modification of Land Surfaces by External Agents." The significance of conservation is presented in a chapter on the "Uses and Problems of Inland Waters." The remainder of the text treats such modern phases of the subject as "Mountains and Plateaus and Their Relations to Life," "Plains and Their Relations to Life," "Coast-Lines and Harbors," "Distribution and Development of the Leading Industries of the United States," and "Distribution of Population; Development of Cities."

Many of the chapter titles seem to indicate an emphasis upon physical features and do not indicate the wealth of life-relations that are found in the text. These relationships are closely woven into the discussion of physical features so that the student cannot fail to appreciate the logical sequence of

cause and effect. Broad, meaningless generalizations are absent, while the book is replete with definite human and other life-responses to specific physical conditions. The student is led to see the great importance of geographic science to human affairs. The book is in no sense a compilation of encyclopedic knowledge but is truly a contribution to the advancement of scientific geography. It is an epoch-making text marking the end of the old pure physiography as now taught in most schools, and the establishment of geography as a distinct and definite science. Its influence in the next decade will be far-reaching. The discussion of industries is far too brief to be of much intrinsic value but offers an excellent introduction to a more intensive study of economic geography, and will tempt the thoughtful student to further study of the many phases of the science.

Other features of the book are a wealth of well-selected illustrations which are closely associated with the text, an excellent collection of maps, and a series of questions at the end of each chapter. The answers to most of these questions are not given in the text but may be reasoned out after a careful study of it. These questions differ from the usual type in that they are truly problems in geography and are certain to arouse discussion.

*High School Geography. Parts I and II: Physical and Economic.* By CHARLES R. DRYER. New York: American Book Co., 1911. Pp. 340. \$1.20.

Dr. Dryer's new book is designed to meet the demand for a new geography which shows the relationship of man to his natural environment. As a high-school text it is a pioneer in this field. Part I is called physical geography, but in the selection of material preference has been given to those earth features which have directly helped or hindered man in his progress. Such topics as the following give an idea of the subjects discussed: "Earth, Sun, and Moon"; "World Economy"; "The Land"; "Gradation by Running Water"; "The Economic Relations of Streams"; "Gradation by Ground, Water, and Wind"; "Soils"; "Coasts and Ports"; "The Atmosphere"; "Climate"; "Plant Regions"; "The Geography of Animals"; "The Human Species." While a few of these subjects do not occur in the older texts, most of them are so familiar that the change from the old geography to the new will be quite simple. Part II is called economic geography and "the outlines of household management practiced by the great human family in its terrestrial home are presented against the background of the natural earth already shown." "Natural Resources and Food Supply"; "Clothing and Constructive Materials"; "Heat, Light, and Power"; "Manufacture, Trade, and Transportation" are the subjects treated. This portion of the text presents to the high-school student a phase of geography which has been kept from him far too long and will awaken interest in what he frequently has considered as a "useless course." It seems, however, that Part II is too much of a compilation of descriptive

material—of much instructive value—without sufficient attention to the development of successive geographic causes that lead to definite results. Relationships are frequently stated as bare facts but not proven, and the average high-school student demands proof. For this reason it seems to be better adapted "to learn" for recitation work than to develop reasoning. It is doubtful if any serious thinking on the part of the student will be induced by it.

Three hundred well-selected illustrations supplement the text. The book as a whole is an excellent contribution to the advancement of the new geography.

*Physiography for High Schools.* By A. L. AREY, F. L. BRYANT, W. W. CLENDENIN, and W. T. MORREY. New York: D. C. Heath & Co., 1911. Pp. 450.

In the *Physiography for High Schools* the authors have endeavored to select such material from the related sciences as seemed best adapted for high-school use. In making such selections they have kept in mind the 90 per cent of high-school students who complete their education in the secondary school. They hold that the student "should know of the earth as a whole, its relation to the other heavenly bodies, and the influence of its size, shape, and motions upon our daily life." This idea has led to the use of much astronomical, meteorological, geological, biological, and historical material. The text is divided into four parts, as follows: "The Earth as a Planet," "The Air," "The Sea," "The Land." An attempt is made throughout the book to show the relationship of climate and other physical environment upon man and his activities. It is to be regretted, however, that more emphasis has not been placed upon this phase of the subject. For this reason the book must be considered as a modified type of the old and not representative of the new geography. Nearly 250 illustrations consisting of pictures, maps, and diagrams supplement the text. At the end of each chapter are sets of questions designed to stimulate thought on the part of the student, as no direct answer to them is to be found in the text.

GEORGE J. MILLER

UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL  
CHICAGO

*A Practical Course in Botany.* By E. F. ANDREWS, with Editorial Revision by FRANCIS E. LLOYD. New York: American Book Co., 1912. Pp. ix+374. \$1.25.

The aim of the makers of this manual has been to provide a course that should meet the requirements of a year's work for college entrance, and at the same time to relate the work to "the business of life" by introducing some economic plants, and by some attention to the elements of agriculture, forestry, pathology, and hygiene.

The work starts with the morphology and physiology of the seed, continues with germination, the morphology and physiology of the root, stem, leaf, flower, and fruit, gives a chapter to the response of plants to surroundings, and ends with a chapter on cryptogams. The last chapter covers 65 pages, and the preceding part, commonly known as *general botany*, 295 pages. A feature of the book is the "Practical Questions" and "Field Work" which close each chapter.

The book is so written that recitations and a considerable part of the laboratory and fieldwork of the pupil can be taken directly from it, and the more abbreviated directions are detailed enough and suggestive enough for the trained teacher to supply various lines of work to the pupils in the direction of pure botany, or in the directions that are so much followed in the present day—agricultural botany, hygiene, and "civic biology."

That the book is excellent in its general make-up, in its method of presentation, in most of its illustrations, and in its suggestiveness for fieldwork and independent observations on the part of the pupil there can be no doubt; also its scope and selection of material and of experiments are generally good. But it is to be regretted that so many errors in physiology have found their way into the book. Photosynthesis is said to result mainly in the formation of starch. Diffusion and osmosis are not clearly set forth. The result of the action of the clinostat and the centrifuge are confused. Geotropism is variously defined as a *tendency*, a *force*, and a *function*. All that is said on contact stimulus and response is wrong. The pupil is told that the twining of a vine is due to retardation of growth on one side because of contact. Several errors are fundamental and therefore capable of much harm to the young teacher not firmly grounded in science, and especially to the pupil, who is supposed by these studies to be inducted into the truth.

FREDERICK C. NEWCOMBE

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

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*Soil Fertility and Permanent Agriculture.* By CYRIL G. HOPKINS.  
Boston: Ginn & Co., 1910. Pp. xxiii+653. Illustrated. \$2.75.

This book, which appeared from the press some months ago, is a profound treatise on the fundamentals of the permanent maintenance of soils. Past practices in careless farming, which have sometimes been called "soil mining," have depleted soils so seriously that the attention of all students of agriculture must be given more intently to the practices which will keep up the fertility of the soil indefinitely. The book comes at a time in the development of agricultural science when there is great need for such study. The author's standing in the agricultural world, and his long experience as a teacher, makes him a most suitable author of such a book. Agricultural college students, as well as high school students, pursuing soil studies, will find it a most valuable addition to the few volumes now available, as related to soil maintenance.

Indeed the book is much to be preferred to the foreign books now offered for American students of this subject.

Dr. Hopkins has divided the subject into the following four parts: Part I, Science and Soil; Part II, Systems of Permanent Agriculture; Part III, Soil Investigations by Culture Experiments; Part IV, Various Fertility Factors.

The tables, illustrations, and maps, in the text are up to date and well suited to student work. The chemistry problems are made as simple as possible. The author's style is "studied and profound" and, indeed, the average farmer will find the book a disappointment because of the depth into which the author enters in the analytical discussions of the many themes taken up. There is a splendid appendix, including a number of topics which the student will have constant reference to.

K. C. DAVIS

COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE  
NEW BRUNSWICK, N. J.

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*High-School Manual for Florida.* Prepared by JOHN A. THACKSTON and Others. Gainesville: University of Florida, 1912. Pp. 146.

This bulletin of the University of Florida for the guidance of high-school teachers and principals is admirably adapted to the needs and present possibilities of a state whose educational system is passing out of the primitive stage into a period of strong progress. The manual is noteworthy in that it is up to date, progressive, practical, modest, and free from fads. It aims at the modernization of the high-school course, and points the way along lines that promise results far superior to those of the traditional, largely disciplinary routine. Especially noteworthy is the humanistic emphasis in the sections devoted to the various high-school subjects, particularly the sciences. They are to be taught as human interests, in relation to man and his needs. The section on Civics is a reconstruction of the course in that subject, so as to give a practical study of society, including such topics as local history, local geography, local industries, communication, organized community life, public health, and sanitation, etc. It could be wished that along with these progressive suggestions touching technique and curriculum the editor had brought out explicitly the present need for emphasis on the spirit of high-school teaching. When calling attention to the loss from constant change of teachers, he might have shown that while by paying big salaries the school may get skilled pedagogues and technical excellence of output, it is only by paying the bigger price—by giving to the teacher freedom to do for his pupils the best that he knows and feels—that real teaching can be secured. If, however, the schools of Florida rise to the standard set by this bulletin, there will be a notable advance in efficiency, and the same would be true of many another state.

A. W. CALHOUN

LENOX COLLEGE

## BOOKS RECEIVED

### EDUCATION

- Fagan, James O. *The Autobiography of an Individualist*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1912. Pp. iii+290. \$1.25.
- Luckey, George Washington Andrew. *Outlines of the History of Education*. Second Edition Revised. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1912. Pp. 147.
- Parker, Samuel Chester. *A Textbook in the History of Modern Elementary Education, with Emphasis on School Practice in Relation to Social Conditions*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1912. Pp. xxv+505. Illustrated. \$1.50.
- Pfeiffer, Georg. *Repertorium der pädagogischen Literatur der Jahre 1906-1911: Sach- und Autorenregister zur Pädagogischen Jahreschau*, herausgegeben von Eduard Clausnitzer. Leipzig: Teubner, 1913. Pp. iv+104. M. 2.
- Riley, Athelstan, Sadler, Michael E., and Jackson, Cyril. *The Religious Question in Public Education: A Critical Examination of Schemes Representing Various Points of View*. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1911. Pp. vi+350. \$2.00 net.
- Second International Moral Education Congress (The Hague, August 22-27, 1912). *Papers Contributed by American Writers and Review of Recent American Literature on Moral Education*. (Felix Adler, Chairman American Committee.) New York: The American Committee of the International Congress (2 West 64th street), 1912. Pp. iv+195. \$0.60.
- Terman, Lewis M. *The Teacher's Health: A Study in the Hygiene of an Occupation*. (Riverside Educational Monographs, Edited by Henry Suzzallo.) Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1913. Pp. xv+137. \$0.60 net.

### ENGLISH

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## CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE IN THE PERIODICALS<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> *Abbreviations.*—Child Wel. M., Child Welfare Magazine; *Educa.*, Education; *Educa. R.*, Educational Review; *El. School T.*, Elementary School Teacher; *English J.*, English Journal; *Lit. D.*, Literary Digest; *Psychol. Clinic*, Psychological Clinic; *School R.*, School Review; *Voca. Educa.*, Vocational Education; *West. J. of Educa.*, Western Journal of Education.

<sup>2</sup> Annotations by Dr. Frank N. Freeman.

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